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H. W. AUDEN

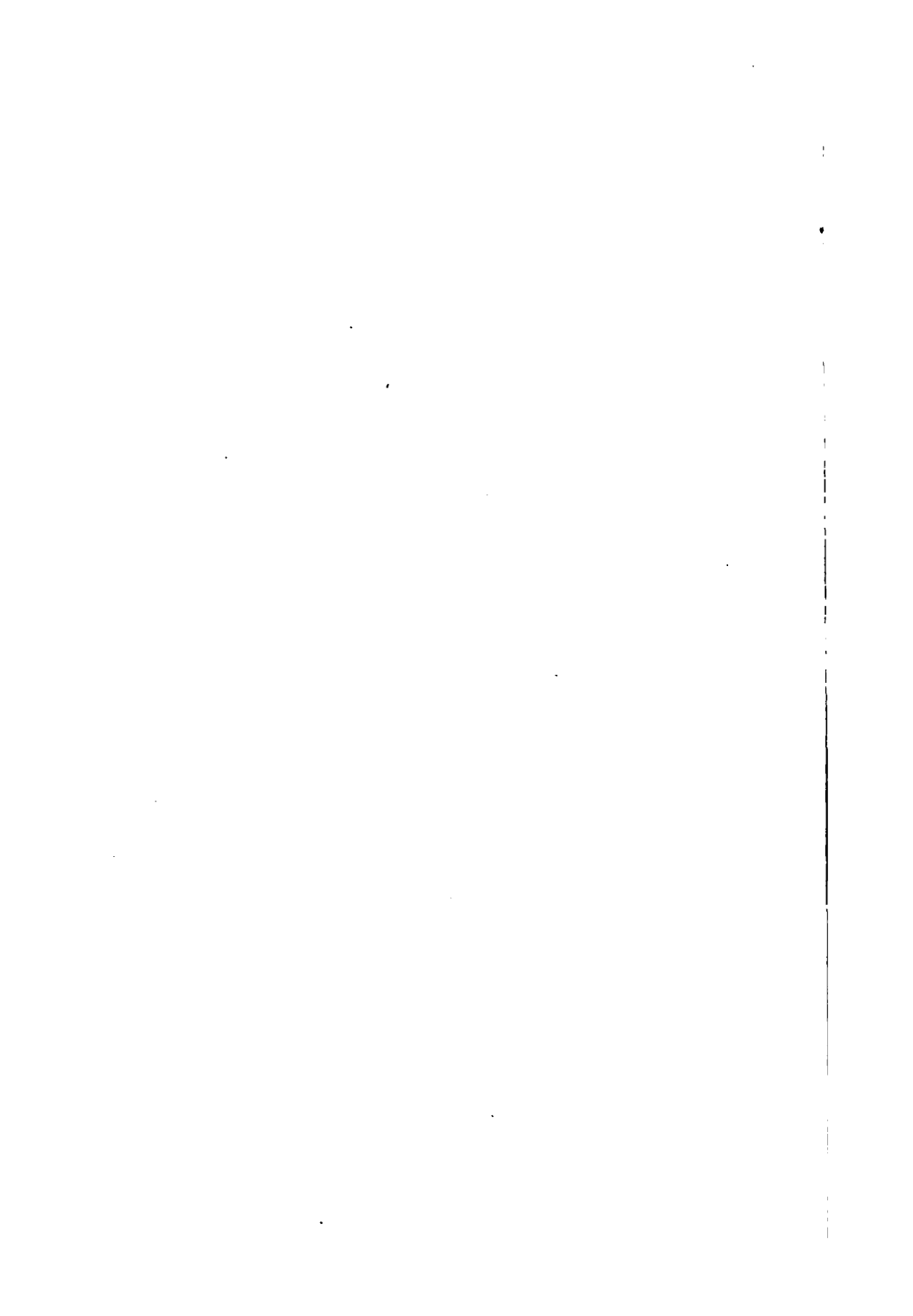
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# HIGHER LATIN PROSE

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## P R E F A C E.

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IN the Introduction to this Manual of Higher Latin Prose I have tried to put together in a compact practical form, for the use of higher forms and university students, a sketch of the *essentials* of Latin Prose; to combine in one treatise outlines of the *necessary* points of a large subject, sufficiently clearly, I hope, to guide the student to the closer investigation which they all deserve, but which some have not received—*e.g.*, Latin connecting particles, accurate differentiation of styles, use of proverbs, &c. Throughout the Introduction I have tried to give a good supply of *instances* in each section.

In the second part of the book I have kept in view two *desiderata*—(a) That the Exercises should not be too hard; (b) that the Sentences should be such as to enable a pupil by their means to revive and recapitulate his knowledge of both the structure and the idiom of the Latin language.

H. W. AUDEN.

EDINBURGH, 1898.



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## § 2. HOW TO GRASP THE ENGLISH.

In dealing with the first requisite—(a) an adequate representation of the *Sense*—we must in the first place thoroughly understand the English which we have to translate. To ensure this, work carefully through the piece, noting—

- i. The name of author (if given).
- ii. Who is speaking.
- iii. Date and style of author, where possible. Thus the English of Bacon or Milton needs very careful interpreting.
- iv. Summarise mentally all you know about events, people, places, mentioned in the piece, in order to understand thoroughly what is the subject and meaning of the extract.
- v. Read through the English at least six times, *aloud if possible*—if not, as if you were reading aloud,—and note especially the emphasis and antithesis of sentences.

## § 3. TO LATINISE THOUGHTS, NOT WORDS.

Having grasped the English—to (b) Latinise it. Remember in general that you have got to Latinise *thoughts, not words*. Cato's dictum is valid for modern learners of Latin—*rem tene verba sequuntur*. In reading Latin authors *always keep retranslation in view*. Translate Cicero's thoughts into careful idiomatic English, and you will be better able to express thoughts in Ciceronian Latin.

Having worked through your English as suggested in § 2, next—

vi. Decide into what style you will try to turn your piece,—historical, oratorical, philosophical, or epistolary.

vii. Then decide where you will break your sentences, what English sentences you will fuse into one Latin sentence, or what long English period you will break up into short paratactic clauses. In doing this, pay especial attention to (*a*) the *connection* of clauses—use connecting particles (*vid.* § 18) judiciously; and (*b*) Brevity—take care that your rendering is terse and incisive.

viii. Next, making a rough sketch of the connected thoughts, consider *details of Language*; summarise any points of idiom, phraseology, vocabulary, which suggest themselves as suitable.

ix. Make a rough copy, and *lay it aside* for a time.

x. Read your work, aloud if possible, three or four times as an “unseen,” verifying severally—

(*a*) The connection of thought; is the sense clear?

(*b*) Euphony—*e.g.*, avoid verse endings, monotonous repetition of syllables, *ὁμοιοτέλευτα*, &c.

xi. Copy out neatly, with a margin.

#### § 4. LATINITY MUST BE CORRECT AND IDIOMATIC.

The Latinity to be employed in writing a Latin prose version must be—

i. Correct—*i.e.*, according to the usage of the best Latin authors.

ii. Idiomatic.

In other words, we may divide the subject of Latinity under two heads: i. Structure. ii. Ornament (*vid.*



§§ 13-15). First, then, to take some of the main characteristics of the Latin language—Simplicity, Concreteness, Brevity, Variety.

### § 5. SIMPLICITY.

(a) Latin is a simple language, direct and forcible, and corresponds to what we know of the Roman character: the speech of Cato, Dentatus, and Fabricius could not but be simple and downright. Rhetoricians under the early Principate strove against this concise and pregnant terseness; but the reaction soon came, and we find Tacitus carefully imitating the incisive and simple style of Thucydides.

(b) Latin is a *verb-language*—*i.e.*, the strength of a Latin sentence lies in the verb (cf. Quintilian, *in verbis sermonis vis*). Therefore, choose your *verbs* very carefully.

(c) English is too often verbose where Latin is concise: *e.g.*,—

The allurements of pleasure never hindered me from . . .	<i>Voluptas nunquam me avocavit quin . . .</i>
----------------------------------------------------------	------------------------------------------------

Numbers perished in their unavailing efforts to escape.	<i>Multi dum fugiunt trucidantur.</i>
---------------------------------------------------------	---------------------------------------

### § 6. BREVITY.

The object of brevity is well given by Horace, S. 1.  
10. 9:—

“Est brevitate opus ut currat sententia, neu se  
Impediat verbis lassas onerantibus aures.”

Be brief, but not obscure.

Be brief, but do not miss out anything in the English.

Brevity can best be obtained by—

(a) Emphasis (*vid.* § 14), careful order of words; let the position of different parts of the sentence correspond to the logical connection, do not keep the mind in suspense, let the sentence grow under the view. Thus, in introducing new persons or subjects into the narrative, give them the first place, and so on. Similarly, by means of—

(b) Antithesis (*vid.* § 14)—*i.e.*, approximating opposites—the mind is enabled to grasp the meaning without requiring any explanatory words; the mere juxtaposition produces clearness.

(c) The right use of words. The Latin language contains many apparent synonyms: *e.g.*, the many words for “to think”; each has its own proper and exact shade of meaning. Clearness and brevity are combined by choosing exactly the word wanted. A whole sentence of English may sometimes be represented by a judicious *sane*, “we must admit,” *scilicet*, “the reason his opponent gave was . . .” Cf. § 12 on synonyms.

### § 7. CONCRETENESS.

The English language uses abstract terms or forms of expression where Latin prefers concrete. Latin is poor in substantives, but rich in verbs. To express ideas which English puts substantively, periphrases of the most varied sort, chiefly by employment of *verbs*, must be used (*vid.* instances below).

Avoid abstracts in *-io*, especially as representations of English derivatives. Substantives in *-io*, though not unfrequent in colloquial Latin (as a glance at Plautus' vocabulary shows), and used by Cicero in his philosophical works, but often as mere linguistic experiments, cannot be regarded as distinctive of classical Latin. In the Silver Age they became very common: *e.g.*, in Cicero's time the Latin language possessed 859 abstracts in *-io*, in Hadrian's time 1447.

Some verbal periphrases for abstract ideas:—

Theory.	quod in praeceptis positum est.
your true disposition.	qui vester sit animus.
direct results.	quae statim consecuta sunt.
excess of praise.	laus, si nimia sit.
impossibility.	nihil est quod Deus efficere non potest.
to gain their object	cuivis deserviunt dum quod volunt conse-
they will undergo	quantur.
any degradation.	
audience.	ei qui audiunt.
origin.	unde ortus esset tumultus rogabat.
view.	hoc teneo.
date.	quando sis abiturus me velim certiore
	facias.
readers.	qui legunt.
reason.	rationem cur id ita fiat affert.
possibility.	nego fieri posse ut.
existence.	deos esse credimus.
contents. }	librum neque qualis neque a quibus sit
authorship. }	scriptus novi.
client.	quem defendo.
case.	quod sum defensurus.
dangerous position.	Hannibal statim cognovit quanto in dis-
	crimine esset exercitus Romanorum.
method.	ostendi qua ratione res perfici possit.
process.	res quem ad modum gesta sit.
elements.	ea ex quibus omnia nata esse dicuntur.
circumstances.	quod si ita est ; quae cum ita sint.

result.	diligenter considerandum est quid ex quoque re evenire soleat.
arrival.	an adventurus sim incertum est.
presence.	vestigia quibus apparet eum ibi fuisse.
considerations.	hoc me inducit ut credum.

## Adjectival and participial periphrases :—

childhood.	puer, <i>sc</i> , adolescens, juvenis, senex, ab infante, a parvulo, ab adolescentulo.
consulship.	ante Metellum consulem, <i>sc</i> , Cicero quaestor, nobis consulibus.
tradition.	dicitur Homerus caecus fuisse.
request.	Dumnorige deprecatore.
promptings.	tibi frater neque hortanti deero neque roganti.
summit.	summus mons.
remainder.	reliquae naves.
sunrise.	(post) solem ortum.
lapse of years.	multi anni.
expressions of surprise.	sermones admirantium.
death.	Caesar mortuus.
murder.	Brutus et Cassius ab occidendo Caesare non abhorruerunt.
siege.	ab oppugnanda Neapoli Hannibalem abterrere conspecta moenia.
highest degree of music.	amplissimus honos.
ingratitude.	musici.
rhetoric.	omnes immemorem beneficii oderunt.
poetry.	rhetores.
Rome.	poetae.
dutifulness.	Romani.
Volsian territory.	officia.
	Volsci.

## § 8. VARIETY OF EXPRESSION.

Although symmetry, exact antithesis, and careful parallelism are marks of the Ciceronian stage of Latin

prose (cf. *infr.* § 16)—e.g., Sest. 14, *ut eos quorum sceleris furore violatus essem vocis libertate perstringerem*, where *sceleris furore* is used for *scelere* merely to balance *vocis libertate*—yet love of variety is an important factor even in his writings, and above all in the historical writers. The first attempt to modify the almost tedious symmetry of Cicero was made by Sallust; Livy, following the Augustan poets,<sup>1</sup> carries the tendency still further; whilst Tacitus and later writers<sup>2</sup> do so to such an extent that the result is often obscurity. Cæsar indeed troubled himself little about variety, and the collocation of two or more ablatives absolute together is a feature of his style. Cf. his B. G. 1. 3. 2 and 3: *ad eas res conficiendas* repeated.

The question of euphony is of importance here (*vid. infr.* § 16). From the point of view of imitation, we may divide this variety into—

(a) Variety of Construction.

(b) Variety of Vocabulary.

*E.g.*, (a) Liv. 3. 57. 2-4 (Virginius' speech): "Respicerent tribunal homines castellum omnium scelerum ubi decemvir ille perpetuus bonis tergo sanguini civium infestus virgas securesque omnibus minitans deorum hominumque contemptor carnificibus non licitoribus stipatus iam ab rapinis et caedibus animo ad libidinem verso virginem ingenuam in oculis populi Romani velut bello captam ab complexu patris abrep-tam ministro cubiculi sui clienti dono dederit."

<sup>1</sup> Cf. Verg. 6. 858, *Poenos Gallumque rebellem*.

<sup>2</sup> *E.g.*, Hygin. 51. 12, *Argonautae dum apud Lycum morantur et stramentum exissent*, Dict. Cret. 5. 12, *foede atque multos obtruncari*, cf. Prop. 5. 4. 10, *cum quateret, . . . atque stabant*.

Here note alternation of participles, *cum* clauses, *postquam* clauses, abl. abs., &c. *Minitans* . . . *stipatus*, . . . *animo* . . . *verso*.

Alternation of nouns: *infestus* . . . *contemptor*.

Variety of case-endings: *bonis* . . . *virgas* . . . *deorum* . . . *carnificibus*.

Cic. Fat. 23, active and passive alternating: *id fuit defendi melius quam introducere declinationem*.

Variety of connecting particles (Tac. Ann. i. 1): *Tiberii Gaiique et Claudii ac Neronis*; so in Livy.

Avoid especially genitives dependent on each other: e.g., *agminis ducis scutum*, the shield of the leader of the line; *matronarum servorum peculium*, the property of the ladies' slaves.

#### (b) Vocabulary.

When the same idea occurs frequently in close proximity it should usually be expressed variously; avoid monotonous repetition of the same phrase. This applies to all Latin; but as an instance of the extent to which the principle was carried out in later times, it is worth noting that Plin. maj. has thirty different expressions for "to heal," Velleius twenty-five for "to die."

Some instances of parallel phrases for common ideas are—

to expend labour on, devote oneself to.	{	egregiam operam (multum, plus, etc., operae)
		dare alicui rei.
		operam alicui rei tribuere, in aliquid conferre.
		operam (laborem, curam) in or ad aliquid impendere.
		omni cogitatione curaque incumbere in aliquid.
		omnes curas et cogitationes conferre in aliquid.
		omnes curas in aliquo defigere.

to be forgotten.	{ obliterari. memoria alicujus rei obliteratur, evan- escit. oblivioni esse, dari. in oblivionem adduci. oblivione obrui, deleri. exstingui. memoria excidere.
to reduce.	{ terram suae dicionis facere. populum in potestatem suam redigere. populum in deditionem venire cogere.
to attack.	{ aggredi. invadere hostem. impetum facere in hostem. signa inferre in hostem. manus conserere cum hoste.
to flee.	{ fugae se mandare. fugam capessere, capere. terga dare. se dare in fugam. fugae se conicere. se conferre in fugam. terga vertere. fugam facere. se fuga recipere.

## § 9. LATINITY.

A mere knowledge of the *structure* of a Latin sentence does not ensure the production of good Latin prose; some knowledge of *idiom* is required—*i.e.*, of the ornaments of Latinity; in fact, such a thorough mastery of the language as enables the writer to take full advantage of its various usages.

For the acquisition of idiom we must make ourselves perfect in the originals, which are our models, by careful study and by committing to memory large portions of them.

#### PURITY OF LANGUAGE.

Avoid poetical words ; use words taken from *classical* Latin only—*e.g.*, from Cicero, Livy, Sallust, Cæsar, and in a less degree Tacitus, as in his works poetical words, especially Vergilian words, are not uncommon.

Avoid Grecisms (except occasionally in philosophy, *vid.* § 19). Cic. Tusc. 1. 15 says, *scis me græce in latino sermone non plus solere quam in græco latine.*

Avoid far-fetched words ; their use produces obscurity.

#### § 10. ENGLISH DERIVATIVES.

Avoid translating English derivatives by their Latin originals. *E.g.*, the following words must be used with judgment :—

<i>arbitrari,</i>	think.	<i>officium,</i>	duty.
<i>obligare,</i>	bind.	<i>celebritas,</i>	crowded state.
<i>sollicitare,</i>	make anxious.	<i>disciplina,</i>	instruction.
<i>occupare,</i>	seize.	<i>alienus,</i>	foreign.
<i>obtinere,</i>	maintain.	<i>barbarus,</i>	foreign.
<i>provocare,</i>	challenge.	<i>cessare,</i>	hang back.
<i>famosus,</i>	infamous.	<i>desidero,</i>	miss.
<i>fatalis,</i>	fated.	<i>obnoxius,</i>	liable to.
<i>frequens,</i>	crowded.	<i>vilis,</i>	cheap.
<i>crimen,</i>	charge.	<i>ruina,</i>	fall.
<i>instrumentum,</i>	apparatus.		



## § 11. TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE MEANINGS.

Distinguish carefully between the transitive and intransitive meanings of certain English verbs : *e.g.*,—

BURN—the house burns, *ardet domus* ; I burn the house, *uro domum*.

MOVE—the horse moved, *equus se movit*, or *motus est* ; the horse moved the chariot, *equus currum movit*.

INCREASE—he increased the city, *auxit urbem* ; the city increases, *crescit urbs*.

TURN—he turned the chariot, *currum (con)vertit* ; he turned to me, *ad me (con)versus est*, or *se (con)vertit*.

FEED—the sheep feed, *oves pascuntur* ; the shepherds feed the sheep, *pastores pascunt oves*.

SACRIFICE—they sacrificed to the god, *deo sacrificabant* ; they sacrificed a sheep to the god, *ovem deo immolabant*.

ROLL—*volvo rotam*, I roll a wheel ; *volvitur rota*, or *volvit se rota*, the wheel rolls.

## § 12. CHOICE OF WORDS.

Choose your words very carefully. Cæsar used to say that *delectus verborum* was *origo eloquentiæ*. Having formed your idea, try and get *exactly the right word* with which to express it. In Latin very few words are absolutely synonymous : each word has its distinct and proper meaning, to which due regard must be paid. Some apparently synonymous words which need carefully distinguishing are—

OLD—*vetus* (*vetustior*, *veterrimus*, opp. *recens*), what has long existed and still exists, *amicus*, *consuetudo*, *militēs* ; in a bad sense “hackneyed,” *vetus accusator*.

*antiquus* (opp. *novus*), what existed long ago and exists no longer, *antiquissimis temporibus* ; often in good sense *antiqui*, “men of the good old time.”

*priscus*, “very old,” “prehistoric.”

*pristinus*, “former,” *in pristinum statum restituere*.

WORK—*labor*, active toilsome effort, *res magni laboris*.

*opus*, abstract, work ; concrete, product of work, *opus Phidiae ; urbem operibus claudere*.

*opera*, the trouble spent in doing anything, *quod in opere faciundo operae consumis tuae ; operae pretium*, "worth while."

POVERTY—*paupertas*, lack of means, humble circumstances.

*egestas*, want, poverty, destitution.

*inopia*, want of resource, helplessness.

*mendicitas*, beggary.

ORDER—*iubere* (opp. *vetare*), to bid, tell, *κελεύειν, salvere te iubeo*.

*imperare*, to order by virtue of high official (military) position.

*edicere*, to proclaim publicly and officially.

*praecipere*, to prescribe, dictate by virtue of personal authority, *quidquid, pater, praeceperis faciam*.

SEE, LOOK AT—*videre*, see, in general.

*cernere*, to descry, distinguish.

*contemplari*, to look earnestly at (with feelings of joy, admiration, &c.), *pulchritudinem rerum contemplari*.

*considerare*, to look at critically, to make a mental estimate of a thing.

*intueri*, to gaze carefully and fixedly on—e.g., *exempla praeclarissimorum virorum*.

*contueri*, to take a comprehensive view of—e.g., *totam terram*.

EARTH—*terra*, (1) earth as one of the elements. (2) a country, specially in plur., *ultimae terrae*. (3) the terrestrial globe, *terra se movet*.

*tellus*, poetical.

*humus*, the soil, as being low (cf. *humilis*), *humi stratus*.

*solum*, the soil, as being firm, *solo aequare*.

RELATE, NARRATE—*narrare*, in general.

*referre*, official, to inform, of envoys, messengers, *referre ad senatum*.

*deferre*, (1) of a spy, *deferre consilia ad aliquem*. (2) to commission, confer, *honores, imperium alicui* or *ad aliquem*.

ENEMY—*hostis, hostilis* (orig. stranger), an enemy in war, an avowed foe of the people or state.

*inimicus* (opp. *amicus*), a personal enemy.

*infestus*, (1) active, hostile in deed, *infestis signis*. (2) passive, endangered, perilous, *infestum iter*.

*infensus*, of disposition, *infenso animo*.

POWER—*potestas*, due official power, *consularis*.

*potentia*, power derived from personal influence, wealth, &c.

Thus often "power abused."

*vis*, violent and unwarranted abuse of power. Distinguish *potestas tribunicia*, the official power of a tribune; *potentia tribunicia*, the abuse of the tribune's power of veto; *vis tribunicia*, violent acts committed by a tribune.

*opes*, sources of influence (especially political)—*e.g.*, money, position, &c.

THINK, BELIEVE—*credere*, belief arising from conviction, *credo deum esse*.

*arbitrari* (*arbiter*, one who decides according to *aequitas*), to believe according to the best of one's judgment.

*putare*, to think, commonly used parenthetically, *hoc, puto, optimum est*.

*ratus, reor*, to feel certain after calculation.

*opinari*, to conjecture, infer.

*existimare*, to estimate, value. Cf. *existimator*, a critic, connoisseur.

*censere*, lit. to give one's vote for; to deliberately decide in favour of an opinion.

*iudicare*, to decide, as if judicially.

LOSS—*damnum* (opp. *lucrum*), injury or harm for which one is oneself responsible; spec. loss of temporal possessions.

*detrimentum* (*de terere*, opp. *emolumentum*), harm done to others; *videant consules ne quid respublica detrimenti capiat*.

*fraus*, harm done by fraudulent means.

*iactura* (*iacere*, lit. a throwing overboard), deliberate sacrifice of a thing, *iacturam facere*.

*amittere* (opp. *retinere*; cf. ἀποβάλλειν), to no longer have, to lose through no fault, *pecuniam, oculos*.

*perdere*, to throw away, lose deliberately, waste; *Decius Mus amisit vitam at non perdidit*.

WISH FOR—*optare*, to choose. Cf. *optio*, choice.

*cupere* (cf. *cupidus*), to passionately desire.

*desiderare*, to feel the want of, to miss.

*expetere*, to make an effort for a thing, to think it desirable; *res expetendae* (opp. *fugiendae*).

## § 13. RICHNESS OF EXPRESSION.

A thorough knowledge of Latin phraseology is necessary for writing good Latin prose. Phrases must of course be employed judiciously: an excessive use of them produces pedantic mannerism, but their neglect results in a dull uniform baldness of style. Cicero's turns of expression should be especially studied: the elaborate rhythm of his sentences is in a great measure produced by his fulness of diction and his use of almost pleonastic hendiadys (*vid.* § 19).

The student should make a phrase-book from his own observation; at any rate he should carefully mark phrases in whatever Latin author he is reading. In compiling a phrase-book, always write down the English translation as well as the phrase. This will help to preserve an idea of the original context. Phrases should be entered under different headings. *E.g.*,—1. Human Life, its various relations. 2. The Mind. 3. Arts and Sciences. 4. Speech and Writing. 5. The Emotions. 6. Philosophy and Religion. 7. Commerce. 8. The State, Law, and Justice. 9. Military matters. 10. Naval matters.

§ 14. THE MORE IMPORTANT FIGURES OF SYNTAX  
AND RHETORIC.

The following are some of the more noticeable figures of speech (tropes),—greatly elaborated by rhetoricians, but originally systematic statements of some characteristic of the Latin language, and as such to be imitated. They may consequently be said to

occur in all Latin prose-writers, in what degree is stated under each author (§§ 19-25).

### *Repetition.*

The repetition of the same word in several sentences. At the beginning (*anaphora*):—

*Nihilne te nocturnum praesidium Palati  
nihil urbis vigiliae  
nihil timor populi  
nihil concursus bonorum  
nihil hic munitissimus habendi senatus locus  
nihil horum ora voltusque moverunt?*

At the end (*antistrophe*):—

*Cic. Phil. 1. 10. 24: de exilio reducti a mortuo  
civitas data a mortuo  
sublata vectigalia a mortuo.*

In juxtaposition (*geminatio*, ἐπίζευξις, ἀναδίπλωσις):—

*Fuit, fuit ista quondam in republica virtus (Cic.)  
eheu fugaces, Postume, Postume,  
labuntur anni (Hor. Od. II. 14. 1).*

*Cic. Sull. 6. 20: suscepi causam, Torquate, suscepi et feci libenter.*

Repetition of the same word, but in different flexion:

*Doletis tres exercitus . . . interfectos. Interfecit Antonius.  
Auctoritas huius ordinis afflicta est. Afflixit Antonius.*

Somewhat similar, but less artificial, are such cases as—

*urbem cepit, captam incendit (Liv.)  
exercitum fundit fugatque, fustum persequitur (Liv.)  
patrem iugulastis, occisum in proscriptorum numerum rettulistis  
(Cic. S. Rosc. 32. Vid. § 23).*

The Latin love of repeated words is also found in the so-called *Traductio*—repetition of the same word in another form, the similar forms being always placed together.

*nova novi generis edicta proponunt.*

*ut . . . ad senem senex . . . sic . . . ad amicum amicissimus*

*. . . scripsi* (De Am. i. 5).

*consul consulem accusat*, "mutual recriminations."

*cohors cohorti calamitatem narrat*, "throughout the army."

*qualis olim qualis ego nunc in mentem venit*, "I think of my degeneracy."

*liber librum aperit.*

*alter alterum interfecit.*

*cives cum civibus certant.*

This principle of the recurrence of the same or cognate words in juxtaposition is well exemplified in Latin inscriptions from the earliest period. *E.g.*—

CIL. 1194. *boneis probata inveisa sum a nulla proba.*

CIL. 1010. *Fortuna spondet multa multis praestat nemini.*

CIL. 1011. *fido fida viro veixsit studio parili.*

Latin writers of inscriptions, especially of the dedicatory kind, have very much elaborated this characteristic, and no inscription is considered good unless it contains a neatly expressed *traductio*: a good instance is "literato literator . . . *hoc opus . . . dedicat*," "the sciolist to the true scientist."

### *Alliteration.*<sup>1</sup>

*vi victa vis est* (Liv.)

*an fuisse in eis aliquem . . . famae metum quorum . . . fer-  
rum in foro, flammam in delubris vidisti* (Cic. Planc. 71).

<sup>1</sup> For alliteration in English, cf. Stevenson, 'Across the Plains,' p. 181, on "the influence of jingling words as one of the accus-

*Emphasis and Antithesis.*

These do not depend entirely on the rhetorical arrangements of words, but on the choice of correct words. Artificial order produces emphasis or antithesis by

- (1) Placing in juxtaposition similar or opposite ideas.
- (2) Reversing the ordinary sequence of words.
- (3) Separating similar or opposite ideas from each other; especially placing them at the emphatic points—*i.e.*, the beginning and end of the sentence. *E.g.*,—

*Esse oportet ut vivas non vivere ut edas.*

*Dicebat melius quam scripsit Hortensius.*

*Doctrina Graecia nos et omni literarum studio superabat.*

*Tantam ingenuit animantibus conservandi sui natura custodiam,  
sublato tyranno tyrannida manere video.*

*ex falso verum effici non potest.*

Note in antithetical sentences the clauses are usually short, and the specific words opposed to each other are often somewhat similar in form—*e.g.*, in the number of syllables they contain or in terminations; *e.g.*, *ut delectarem dixi, ut objurgarem minime.*

tomed artifices of his trade"; on the "power of the alternation of initial *p* and mediant *t*," showing that "at the root of what appears there lie most serious unexpected elements." As a youthful experiment in alternate alliteration he quotes "putting a pound of potassium in a pot of porter." An analysis of a few pages of Stevenson's essays produces several instances of alternate alliteration, but how far they were intentionally elaborated it is impossible to say.

*Oxymoron.*

*Oxymoron* may be regarded as an extreme development of antithesis :—

*Cum tacent, clamant* (Cic. Cat. 1-8. 21).  
*insanientis . . . sapientiae consultus. Discors concordia. In-*  
*sepulta sepultura* (Cic. Phil. 1. 2. 5).

*Litotes.*

Closely allied to *Oxymoron* is *Litotes*, properly the negating of an opposite, then used of any epigrammatic under-statement :—

*non mediocris=insignis ; minime contemnendus=magni aesti-*  
*mandus ; haud pauci=plurimi ; non sum nescius=plane scio,*  
*non indecorus=decorus, &c.*

Note the use of *parum*="not enough." *Caius parum diligens est*, "C. is not sufficiently industrious." *Parum multi*, "too few."

*Interrogatio.*

Cicero very frequently uses rhetorical questions (*Ἑρώτημα, interrogatio*) to relieve the monotony of a long period, to sum up vividly the argument, or to introduce the supposed objection of an opponent :—

qui ordo (equestris) quanto adiumento sit in honore quis nescit?  
 insidiatori et latroni quae potest inferri iniusta nex? (Cic.  
 Planc. 23).



So too for English—

incredible  
impossible  
again  
to pass on  
I need not mention  
nobody  
nothing  
it is well known  
undoubtedly  
unbearable

We may use—

*quis crediderit?*  
*quo tandem modo fieri potest?*  
*quid?*  
*quid loquor de?*  
*quid commemorem?*  
*ecquis?*  
*ecquid?*  
*quis nescit?*  
*an quisquam dubitabit?*  
*quousque tandem hoc patiemur?*

Cf. the use of an opponent's statement, usually with a personal pronoun at the beginning of the sentence:—

*Tu mihi etiam M. Atilium Regulum commemoras?*

### *Asyndeton.*

The omission of *et, que, &c.*:—

*Catilina abiit, excessit, evasit, erupit* (Cic.)

*Tolle hanc suspicionem; luctum sustuleris* (Cic.)

*Polliceor vobis . . . tantam in nobis consulibus fore diligentiam, tantam in vobis auctoritatem, tantam in equitibus Romanis virtutem, tantam in omnibus bonis consensionem ut Catilinae profectione, omnia patefacta, illustrata, oppressa, vindicata, esse videatis* (Cic.)

*sint sane ista bona quae putantur, honores divitiae voluptates cetera* (Cic.)

### *Chiasmus.*

*I.e.*, when two ideas are contrasted, the second is put in inverse order to the first (*χίασμος*, from the letter X χ):—

*(nostra) ratio consentit  
repugnat <sup>X</sup> oratio* (Cic.)  
*vir specie quidem puerili  
senili vero prudentia.*

*Non video quomodo sedare possint mala praesentia  
praeteritae voluptates.*

Chiasmus is very widely used, not only in the case of single words, but whole clauses. Cf. § 23.

### *Climax.*

(κλίμαξ, a ladder), *gradatio* :—

*In urbe luxuries creatur, ex luxuria existat avaritia necesse est, ex avaritia erumpat audacia* (Cic.)

*nullas ille neque contentiones neque inimicitias neque vitae dimicationes . . . pro me defugiendas putavit* (Cic. Planc. 77).

*vos cum regem inultam esse patiemini qui legatum populi Romani consularem vinculis ac verberibus atque omni supplicio excruciatum necavit* (Cic. Imp. 5. 11).

### *Hendiadys.*

Two expressions to make up one idea (ἐν διὰ δυοῖν) :—

*natura pudorque meus*, "my natural modesty."  
*eniti et efficere. consilium ac moderatio. via et ratio* (= μέθοδος). *vis et natura* (φύσις).  
*divellere ac distrahere*, "to separate violently."  
*fundere fugareque*, "utterly rout." *orare atque obsecrare*, "plead earnestly." *se applicare et adiungere*, "to apply oneself diligently to."

Cicero, especially in his more careful speeches, is very fond of a combination of two almost synonymous expressions—e.g., in the exordium alone of the Pro Plancio, *egregia et singularis, dolebam et acerbè ferebam, praesidio custodiaque, conspectus et consessus, reficit et recreat, intueor et contemplor, non sumo neque adrogo*. The words joined are not always exactly synonymous, and as far as such combinations are not

merely the result of a desire to use as many words as possible and yet not be definite, may be considered as equivalent to a strengthening adverb added to the original idea. These combinations are especially used *at the end of a sentence* for the sake of rhythm or artificial emphasis.

### § 15. MISCELLANEOUS IDIOMS AND WARNINGS.

#### *Idioms.*

(a) *nostras*, "of our country"; *vestras*, "of your country"; *nostrates hodierni*, "England of to-day."

(b) Neuter plurals of adjectives representing English substantives are usually found only in *nom. and acc.* The sense must be clear; hence decline—

N. and A. <i>Futura</i> , the future.	<i>Mali</i> , bad men
Gen. <i>Rerum futurarum</i> .	<i>hominum malorum</i> .
Dat. <i>Rebus futuris</i> .	<i>hominibus malis</i> .

So *docti*, savants, but *homo doctus*, a savant.

(c) Proper names may either (a) be Latinised—e.g., Nelsonius, Wellingtonius—or (b) be represented by the name of some *ancient* parallel character—e.g., Cromwell = Cato, Warren Hastings = Verres, &c.,—but in this case care must be taken to make the parallel consistent throughout.

(d) In the best Latin prose the following may be taken as the flexion of the imperative:—

<i>Act. ama.</i>	<i>Pass. amare.</i>
amet.	ametur.
amemus.	amemur.
amate.	amamini.
ament.	amentur.

(e) Deponent participles are useful, and should be collected; such are: *ratus*, *egressus*, *veritus*, *usus*, *confusus*, *ausus*, *indignatus*, *aversatus*, *conversus*, *comitatus*, *arbitratus*, *populatus*, *veneratus*, *intuitus*, *miseritus*, *profectus*, *secutus*, *locutus*, *orsus*, *ortus*, *gavisus*, *praefatus*.

(f) *Illud Horatianum*, "that saying of Horace." So *Caesarianum*, *Lucretianum*; but only in nom. and acc., in other cases paraphrase—e.g., *hoc intellegimus ex eo quod ab Horatio praeclare dictum est*.

(g) Future participles can be well used of what will happen, and what is intended or likely to happen. They give variety of construction, and often form an emphatic and sonorous ending: *scripsit Plato libros qui in perpetuum sunt duraturi*. On their use in Livy *vid.* § 23. Note that *esse* is often omitted in a compound tense of the infinitive: *spero me celeriter profecturum*.

(h) Cicero, from a love of (a) variety, (b) rhetorical intensification, often uses words strengthened by *per*—e.g., *perraro*, *permulti*, *perdifficilis*, *permagnus*, *perpauci*, &c.

(i) As a rule, begin a piece of Latin prose with a connecting particle; if the context is vague, a colourless one—e.g., *profecto*, *autem*, *quidem*.

(j) The second person of verbs is often a substitute for a more complex English phrase:—

"Caesar would naturally have" . . . *credideris sane Julium* . . .

"They returned like beaten soldiers to the camp," *maesti, crederes victos, in castra redeunt* (Liv.)

(k) *Ratio* is often used by Cicero to give an idea of

abstractness to a noun—e.g., *consili ratio* = *consilium*; *investigandi ratio*, &c. Cf. § 19.

(l) Strictly classical Latin prefers compound to simple verbs; "simple verbs appear to be only used when they form part of a phrase or formula hallowed by usage—e.g., *detrimentum capere* (not *accipere*), *testes dare*, *reges pellere*, *condiciones ferre*."

(m) Numerals :—

100,000 = *centum millia*.

1,000,000 = *decies (centena millia)*.

2,000,000 = *bis decies* or *viciens (centena millia)*.

10,000,000 = *decies decies (centena millia)*.

1,800,000 = *decies octiens*.

4,356,750 = *quadrages ter centena millia quinquaginta sex millia septingenti quinquaginta*.

$\frac{1}{2}$  = *dimidia pars* (sometimes omitted).

$\frac{1}{3}$  = *tertia pars*.

$\frac{1}{9}$  = *nona pars*.

$\frac{3}{10}$  = *tres decimae partes*.

$\frac{2}{5}$  = *duae quintae*.

$\frac{5}{8}$  = *quinque octavae partes*.

$\frac{3}{4}$  = *tres partes*.

$\frac{2}{3}$  = *duae partes*.

$\frac{4}{5}$  = *quatuor partes*.

$\frac{7}{8}$  = *pars dimidia et tertia ( $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8}$ )*.

(n) Dates :—

Days of the Month.	Januar., August., Decembr.	April, Jun., Septembr., Novembr.	Februar.	Mart., Mai., Jul., Octobr.
1	Calendae.	Calendae.	Calendae.	Calendae.
2	IV. Non.	IV. Non.	IV. Non.	VI. Non.
3	III. "	III. "	III. "	V. "
4	Prid. "	Prid. "	Prid. "	IV. "
5	Nonae.	Nonae.	Nonae.	III. "
6	VIII. Idus.	VIII. Id.	VIII. Id.	Prid. "
7	VII. "	VII. "	VII. "	Nonae.
8	VI. "	VI. "	VI. "	VIII. Id.
9	V. "	V. "	V. "	VII. "
10	IV. "	IV. "	IV. "	VI. "
11	III. "	III. "	III. "	V. "
12	Prid. "	Prid. "	Prid. "	IV. "
13	Idus.	Idus.	Idus.	III. "
14	XIX. Cal.	XVIII. Cal.	XVI. Cal.	Prid. "
15	XVIII. "	XVII. "	XV. "	Idus.
16	XVII. "	XVI. "	XIV. "	XVII. Cal.
17	XVI. "	XV. "	XIII. "	XVI. "
18	XV. "	XIV. "	XII. "	XV. "
19	XIV. "	XIII. "	XI. "	XIV. "
20	XIII. "	XII. "	X. "	XIII. "
21	XII. "	XI. "	IX. "	XII. "
22	XI. "	X. "	VIII. "	XI. "
23	X. "	IX. "	VII. "	X. "
24	IX. "	VIII. "	VI. "	IX. "
25	VIII. "	VII. "	V. "	VIII. "
26	VII. "	VI. "	IV. "	VII. "
27	VI. "	V. "	III. "	VI. "
28	V. "	IV. "	Prid. Cal.	V. "
29	IV. "	III. "	Mart.	IV. "
30	III. "	Prid. Cal. Mensis sequentis.		III. "
31	Prid. Cal. Mensis sequentis.			Prid. Cal. Mensis sequentis.

*Warnings.*

(a) Distinguish in the names of peoples the following types :—

*Afer* (subst.), a native of Africa ; *P. Terentius Afer*.

*Africus* (adj.), belonging to Africa—e.g., *terra, ventus, bellum*.

*Africanus*, connected incidentally with Africa : *Scipio Africanus* ; *legiones Africanæ*, Roman legions in Africa ; *bellum Africanum*, a war between Romans in Africa ; but *bellum Africum*, a war between natives, or between them and Rome.

Similarly, *Gallus* (subst. and adj.), *Gallicus* (*bellum*), *Gallicanæ* (*legiones*) ; *Hispanus*, *Hispanicus*, *Hispaniensis* (*bellum*) ; *Anglus* (subst.), *Anglicus*, *Anglicanus*, &c.

(b) "It seems that Pompey has come," *videtur Pompeius venisse* (not *Pompeium*).

(c) Avoid using the present participle active (*-ens* and *-ans*) in the *nominative singular*, unless action is denoted as going on strictly contemporaneously with that of the verb—e.g., *haec moriens dicebat*, "he said this whilst dying" ; in other connections use *cum* with plup. subj., or a deponent participle. The present participle active occurs probably most frequently in the dat. sing. and gen. plural—e.g., *cuncta investiganti liquebunt*, "on investigation." *Arbitrium existimantium*, "criticism." *Primo impetu gaudentium*, "at the first outburst of joy." *Voces execrantium audiebantur*, "shouts of execration."

(d) *Causâ*, "in order to," is rarely used except in short phrases—e.g., *spectandi causâ*.

(e) Such a sentence as *meus bonus pater* is not good Latin ; write *pater meus vir optimus*.

(f) "The men in the ship were saved," not *viri in nave conservati sunt*, but *viri qui in nave erant*, or *viri*

*in nave vecti*. So "he sold his farm at Capua," *praedium quod Capuae habebat vendidit*, or *Capuae situm*. *I.e.*, adverbial phrases qualify verbs, not substantives.

(g) In constructions with the gerund and gerundive, "gerundive attraction" is the rule for classical Latin. Thus *ducem ad comparandum copias misit* is abnormal, *ad copias comparandas* is normal; *i.e.*, the gerund in *-dum* does not usually govern an accusative. With regard to the ablative, in rendering "he spent a day reconnoitring the country," we may say, *explorando agros diem consumpsit*, or *explorandis agris*. *In visendo agros* is not good Latin.

(h) Verbs should, as a rule, come last, but avoid "verb-sediment"—*i.e.*, a collection of all the verbs of a compound sentence at the end of it. *E.g.*, "When I think how I love you I can scarcely believe you are so far away," not *quum quam te vix credere te tam procul abesse possum reputo*, but *quum reputo quam te amem vix possum credere te tam procul abesse*.

#### § 16. THE PERIOD.

*Definition*.—The Romans had a fondness for expressing many facts in one well-balanced sentence. In such a compound sentence or period there were one or more subordinate clauses, the principal clause usually being placed last. Thus the meaning of the whole sentence is kept suspended till the close.

*History and Technique*.—This doctrine of balance in sentences, this recognition of a musical-rhythmic element in prose, was first studied by the early Sophists—*e.g.*, Thrasymachus and Isocrates—but by



later teachers of style was very widely developed. Such teachers distinguished three kinds of sentences—*commata*, *cola*, and *periodi*. A *comma* (κόμμα, *incisum*) is a simple independent sentence—e.g., *per prata ambulabimus*. A *colon* (κῶλον, *membrum*) is a sentence which, by the nature of its contents, must be dependent—e.g., *cum sol luceat*, “since the sun shines.” A *period* (περίοδος, *ambitus*, *circuitus*, *comprehensio*, *circumscriptio*) is a sentence built up by combination of *colon* and *comma*—e.g., *cum sol luceat per prata ambulabimus*. Rhetoricians considered that a colon should, as a rule, be about the length of a hexameter line. A period may be made up of 1, 2, 3, or 4 *cola*, if of only one, it is subdivided into *commata*—e.g., *statim par horrore, par vertice, par ille nivibus Alpibus Pyrenaeus excepit*.

*Classification*.—Periods may be roughly divided into two classes :—

1. The simple Historic period (enthetic or intercalary), in which the various elements are inserted between the subject and predicate strictly according to their *temporal* relations, the events in the order of their occurrence, &c., with careful alternation of constructions (abl. abs., participles, clauses with *cum*, *ubi*, &c.)
2. The more complicated oratorical period (apodotic or responsive), the features of which are symmetry and exact balance of clauses; with an elaborate correspondence of protasis and apodosis.

Instances :—

Historic—

Numitor inter primum tumultum hostes invasisse urbem atque adortos regiam dictitans cum pubem Albanam in arcem praesidio armisque obtinendam avocasset postquam iuvenes perpetrata caede pergere ad se gratulantes vidit, extemplo advocato concilio scelera in se fratris originem nepotum ut geniti ut educati ut cogniti essent caedem deinceps tyranni seque eius auctorem ostendit.—Liv. 1. 6.

Catuvolcus rex dimidia partis Eburonum qui una cum Ambiorige consilium inierat aetate iam confectus cum laborem aut belli aut fugae ferre non posset omnibus precibus detestatus Ambiorigem qui eius consilii auctor fuisset taxo cuius magna in Gallia Germaniaeque copia est se exanimavit.—Caes. B. G. vi. 31. 5.

Oratorical—

Ut saepe homines aegri morbo gravi cum aestu febrique iactantur si aquam gelidam biberunt primo relevari videntur deinde multo gravius vehementiusque afficiantur ; sic hic morbus qui est in republica relevatus istius poena vehementius reliquis vivis ingravesceat.—Cic. Catil. i. 13, 31.

Si quis vestrum iudices aut eorum qui adsunt forte miratur me qui tot annos in causis iudiciisque publicis ita sim versatus ut defenderim multos laeserim neminem subito nunc mutata voluntate ad accusandum descendere, is mei consilii causam rationemque cognoverit una et id quod facio probabit et in hac causa profecto neminem praeponendum mihi esse actorem putabit.—Cic. Div. in Caec. 4. 1.

The periodic style predominates in Latin of the classical times, so that when talking of "classical prose" we usually mean prose expressed in periods. The technique of the period has been since the earliest times systematised for learners.

As characteristics of its structure note—

1. Its *unity* : each period is a complete well-rounded whole, its meaning clear at once to the mind on perusal.

This completeness is attained by—

- i. Keeping the same subject.
- ii. Keeping the same object.
- iii. Careful subordination.

2. Its *symmetry*, which is especially noticeable in the oratorical variety—e.g., Cic. Arch. I :—

- a.<sup>1</sup> si quid est in me ingeni, iudices,  
 a. quod sentio quam sit exiguum ;  
 b. aut si qua exercitatio dicendi,  
 b. in qua me non infiteor mediocriter esse versatum ;  
 g. aut si huiusce rei ratio aliqua a disciplina profecta,  
 γ. a qua ego nullum confiteor aetatis meae tempus abhorruisse ;  
 A. earum rerum omnium Licinius fructum a me repetere . . .  
 debet.

Cf. *Natura non tam propensus ad misericordiam quam implacatus ad severitatem videbatur.*

*implacatus* inserted to correspond to *propensus*.

*Namque hoc praestat amicitia propinquitati quod ex propinquitate benevolentia tolli potest ex amicitia non potest.*

*ex amicitia* has a verb with it, because *ex propinquitate* has.

### 3. Variety in the period.

Variety and alternation of construction are specially noticeable in Historic narrative : e.g.,—

*Sagunto deleta Hannibal montes Pyrenaeos transgressus cum per Galliam iter fecisset ad Alpes pervenit.  
 quod postquam barbari fieri animadverterunt expugnatis compluribus navibus cum ei rei nullum reperiretur auxilium fuga salutem petere contenderunt.*

---

<sup>1</sup> For analysis of periods it is useful to denote by *A* the principal clause ; *a*, a subordinate clause dependent on *A* ; *a*, a subordinate clause dependent on *a* but independent of *A*, and so on.

## 4. Order of words.

The emphatic positions in a sentence are the beginning and the end; these are usually occupied by the subject and predicate (*i.e.*, usually the verb) respectively:—

*Xerxes Darei filius pugna Salaminia victus quam celerrime in Asiam revertit.*

This sentence may be taken as a type.

Detailed order—

- i. Subject and all belonging to it, adjective, appositional genitive, &c., those nearer in thought to it being placed near to it—*e.g.*,  
*Darei filius, pugna Salaminia victus.*
- ii. Adverbs of time, manner, &c. (unless specially with the verb).
- iii. Remoter object and its enlargement.
- iv. Direct object and its enlargement.
- v. Verb.

*Cf. Hannibal infesto exercitu ingressus fines pervastatis passim agris urbem tripertito aggreditur.*

The order of more complex sentences follows the same principle. What comes early in thought comes early in speech; what late, late,—the mind moving gently up to a climax. Thus temporal, causal, conditional, concessive, and comparative sentences precede the main sentence, as also often the relative sentence does. Thus the less precedes the greater, the less clear the clear, governed words come before governing, and the whole period ends with the main sentence, which contains the strongest part of the sentence, the verb. But remember that in long com-

plicated sentences the mind must not be kept in suspense too long; sentences should be so arranged that the meaning gradually unfolds itself.

This scheme of arrangement may be modified by the following alterant agents:—

(a) Accent, emphasis, especially antithesis (*vid. supr.*

§ 14)—*e.g.*, *necessitatis inventa antiquiora sunt quam voluptatis*. Words of the same or similar or opposite meanings are usually placed together (*transductio*): *manus manum lavat. Ex bello tam tristi laeta repente pax cariores Sabinas fecit. Sint semper homini humana meditata*.

(b) Desire for clearness (*vid. § 6*). The order must be sensible and clear. Of this, retranslation is the only test.

### 5. Rhythm and euphony in periods.

Rhythm is the symmetrical alternation of emphatic and unemphatic words or clauses—*e.g.*, *De Orat.*

I. 1:—

*Cogitanti mihi saepenumero et memoria vetera repetenti per-beati fuisse Quinte frater illi videri solent qui in optima republica cum et honoribus et rerum gestarum gloria florent eum vitae cursum tenere potuerunt ut vel in negotio sine periculo vel in otio cum dignitate esse possent.*

General hints:—

Avoid verse endings, *dicere vellem, parata fuisse*.

Avoid verse beginnings, *nonne vides ut*.

Where the sense is impressive use spondaic words.

Where the movement is light use dactylic.

Avoid the collocation of words of the same number

of syllables—e.g., *haec de te spes nos fefellit ;  
ista pugna Caesar multos Gallos vicit atque  
cepit.*

Avoid ὁμοιοτέλευτα, similarity of ending—e.g.,  
*horum duorum fortissimorum virorum.*

Avoid harsh combinations—e.g., *s+s* or *x*—e.g.,  
*Rex Xerxes.*

Avoid open vowels together :—

*cui ea omnia accepta ille esse putabat.*

Some of Cicero's favourite endings :—

*ēssē vidēātūr.  
glōriām pōstulābāt.  
cūnctā cēpērunt.  
nēglīgīt Iūppitēr nōxīōs.*

A favourite beginning :—

*crīmīnibus ōmnēs.*

Pronouns tend to collect together :—

*ea sibi ille ne visenda quidam existimabat.  
non ego te meis chartis inornatum silebo.*

Negatives occur early in the sentence :—

*non ego iam Epaminondae mortem huius morti antepono.*

Cf. the prominence given to the negative in

<i>nec quisquam</i>	not <i>et nemo.</i>
<i>neque unquam</i>	not <i>et nunquam.</i>
<i>veto</i>	not <i>iubeo non.</i>
<i>nego</i>	not <i>dico non.</i>
<i>So non puto</i>	not <i>puto non, &amp;c.</i>

6. The period, limits of its use.

The period is employed by Cicero in dignified

sonorous passages, in calm unimpassioned narrative—as, for instance, the introduction of his speeches and the statement of the case. He avoids monotony by employing a more detached paratactic style in lively arguments, passionate descriptions, vivid narrative. His speeches show an attractive variety — well-balanced periods enlivened by short, curt, incisive statements of facts.

As an instance of the use made by Latin historians of one long period, where in English we should use two or more shorter sentences, we may take Livy, xliii. 18, 1-4.

Perseus principio hiemis egredi Macedoniae finibus non ausus, ne qua in regnum vacuum irrumperent Romani,

sub tempus brumae, cum inextinguibiles ab Thessalia montes nivis altitudo facit, occasionem esse ratus frangendi finitimorum spes animosque, ne quid averso se in Romanum bellum periculi ab eis esset,

cum a Thracia pacem Cotys ab Epiro Cephalus repentina defectione ab Romanis praestarent, Dardanos recens domuisset bellum, solum infestum esse Macedoniae latus, quod ab Illyrico pateret, cernens, neque

During the early months of the winter season, Perseus hesitated to pass out of Macedonia and leave his kingdom unprotected, fearing that by so doing he would provoke an inroad on the part of the Romans.

However, in midwinter, when the deep snow on the mountains makes all ingress from the side of Thessaly impossible, he thought the time had arrived for crushing the ambitious designs of the neighbouring nations. He wished, too, that during his war with Rome his rear might be safe from all attacks by them.

In neither Thrace nor Epirus was there any likelihood of war-like movement against him, as Cotys and Cephalus, the respective rulers of these countries, had very recently revolted from Rome, whilst the Dardani had

ipsis quietis Illyriis et aditum  
præbentibus Romanis,

been reduced in the late war; one side only of Macedonia he saw was threatened—that towards Illyria; indeed the Illyrians themselves were in an unsettled state, and quite ready to allow the Romans entrance into their territory.

si domuisset proximos Illyri-  
orum Gentium quoque regem  
iam diu dubium in societatem  
perlici posse,

Had Perseus, however, conquered the more contiguous provinces of that nation, he hoped to gain the alliance of their king as well, Gentius by name, who had for some time been wavering in his allegiance.

cum decem milibus peditum,  
. . . . profectus Stuberram  
venit.

All these circumstances induced him to set out for Stuberra, which he soon reached with a force of ten thousand infantry.

### § 17. METAPHORS.

Although in Silver-Age Latin we find an extraordinary love of metaphorical expressions (cf. Quintilian [A.D. 95], *iam paene quidquid loquimur figura est*), yet the language of the Augustan age only employs them to a very limited extent: a nation of limited knowledge has only limited metaphors.

- (a) English metaphors which are forced or exuberant must be toned down, or the simple fact stated.
- (b) Latin, although sparing and precise in its use of metaphor, has very many *verbs* used metaphorically; hence often the verb is enough to express the transferred meaning: e.g.,—

The storm of passion has ceased, *libido consedit*.



To undermine the very foundations of belief, *religionem labefactare*.

To extinguish the torch of war, *bellum extinguere*.

- (c) Some metaphors, especially allusive metaphors, are better expressed as a simile, introduced by *quasi, velut, &c.* : *e.g.*,—

Rhadamanthine severity, Egyptian darkness, to tilt at wind-mills, &c.

- (d) Latin metaphors are most commonly drawn from—

- i. The sea,—*e.g.*, *naufragium = damnum, portus = perfugium; contionum procellae, &c.*  
Water, &c. : *fluit voluptas, redundat Gallia latronibus.*
- ii. Games, Campus Martius, army, &c. : *ad carceres revocari; nullum campum sors dedit in quo excurrere virtus posset; in Epicuri castra veni; loco demovi te.*
- iii. Chains, bonds, &c. : *amore obstringi, amicitiae vincula.*
- iv. Heat and cold; *bellum exardet, seditionem restinguere; friget oratio.*
- v. Commerce : *acceptum referre aliquid, lucro aliquid apponere.*
- vi. Clothing : *probos induere mores, involucrium ingenii.*

Some other verbs which are frequently used metaphorically in Latin are those expressing breathing, breaking, acting, flowing, being ill, &c.

## § 18. CONNECTING PARTICLES.

Both for translation and retranslation a thorough knowledge of these is important,—such a knowledge as will enable the learner to use them with confidence and certainty, otherwise *clearness* cannot be ensured. It will be found useful to frequently take a page of Cicero or Livy and underline every connecting particle in it or make a list of them. The following are some of the more noticeable particles and combinations of particles taken from classical Latin prose :—

## COPULATIVE.

*et* is the commonest connecting particle, and can be used of almost any combination.

*que* combines things which are by nature closely connected.

*et* . . . *et*, “both . . . and,” is the ordinary combination in Latin prose; *que* . . . *et*, *et* . . . *que*, *que* . . . *que*, are rare.

*et*, “too,” Cic. Q. Rosc. 32: *At enim tu tuum negotium gessisti bene. Gere et tu tuum bene.*”

*et* in appeals and incredible questions, “What?” “*et quisquam dubitabit? et causam dicit Sestius de vi? Et quemquam fuisse putas tam excordem*” (Cic. Planc. 71).

*atque*, “and what’s more,” affirms and adds something more. [*ac*, which is not used before a vowel or *h*, is weaker than *atque* and almost = *et*.] “*Intra moenia atque in sinu urbis*” (Sall. Cat. 52. 35).

*atque* is often strengthened by *adeo*, *etiam*, *quoque*, *insuper*: *atque etiam hoc videbat*.

*atque* in transitions: *atque ut veniamus ad*; *atque hæc hætenus. ac (et) non*, “and not, rather”: “*Quasi vero me tuo arbitratu et non meo gratum esse oporteat*” (Cic. Planc. 71).

*neque (nec)*; note—

nor any one,	<i>neque quisquam</i> ,	and no one.
nor any,	<i>neque ullus</i> ,	and no one.

nor anything,      *neque quicquam*,      and nothing.  
 nor ever,      *neque unquam*,      and never,  
                  &c.      &c.      &c.

*nec* . . . *non*, "moreover": "*Nec vero Aristoteles non laudandus est*" (Cic. IV. D. 2. 16. 44).

*nec non* or *necnon*, with no word intervening, is not found in prose except in the post-Augustan period.

Other particles used in *parallel* clauses:—

<i>tum</i> . . . <i>tum</i> .	<i>simul</i> . . . <i>simul</i> .
<i>iam</i> . . . <i>iam</i> .	<i>modo</i> . . . <i>modo</i> .
<i>nunc</i> . . . <i>nunc</i> .	<i>qua</i> . . . <i>qua</i> (rare).
<i>aliter</i> . . . <i>aliter</i> .	

Where the clauses are compared in some way, *cum* . . . *tum*, "both . . . and especially," *maxime praecipue*, sometimes being added:—

*ut* . . . *ita*, *quemadmodum* . . . *sic*, *ut* . . . *sic*, representing a loose co-ordination, "while," "though," . . . , "yet," often useful in combinations where the Greeks would use *μήν* . . . *δέ*.

*non modo* (solum) *non* . . . *sed ne* . . . *quidem*.

*ego non modo tibi non irascor sed ne reprehendo quidem*, I not only am not angry with you, but I do not even blame.

but *ego non modo te punire sed ne reprehendere quidem possum*, I not only cannot punish you, but cannot even blame you.

The second *non* being omitted when the two negative clauses have a verb in common.

*nedum*, "much less": *Puerum vixdum libertatem nedum dominationem modice laturum*.

#### ADVERSATIVE.

*sed* corrects strongly or denies.

*ut*<sup>1</sup> introduces a clause abruptly—*e.g.*, startling transitions, remonstrances, wishes.

<sup>1</sup> *ut* is archaic and colloquial. The Augustan poets revived its use *metri gratia*. It only occurs occasionally in Cic. ad Att., but did not become common in prose till the second century A.D.

*at enim*, "but I shall be told." Cf. ἀλλὰ νῆ Δία. "At enim tu tuum gessisti bene. Gere et tu tuum bene" (Cic. Q. Rosc. 32). Cf. *at dixerit quis; quaerat quispiam; forsitan dixerit quispiam*.

*atqui*, "but yet," stronger than *at*.

*autem*,<sup>1</sup> a weak particle introducing something not inconsistent with what has preceded; used in comparisons (cf. μὲν . . . δὲ) transitions (cf. τοιούτων), resumptions (cf. δὴ). *Autem* is exceedingly frequent in Cicero.

*autem* in vivid self-correcting questions. Liv. 21. 44. 7: "*In Africam transcendes. Transcendes autem dico?*" Cic. Att. 5. 15. 3: "*Quid in republica fiat. Fiat autem? Immo vero,*" &c.

*ceterum*, "however," "as a matter of fact," often resumes after a digression, "be that as it may" (cf. δ' οὖν). Used by the historians, only once in Cicero. Sall. Jug. 76. 1: "*Simulabat sese negoti gratia properare, ceterum proditorem timebat.*" *verum*, "it is true," practically=*sed*. Usually first word in a sentence. Found in Cicero's earlier works, but sparingly.

*vero*, "of a truth," practically=*autem*. Usually second word. Confined to the historians, except in the combination *nisi forte* (Cic.)

## COMPARATIVE.

Note *ut* before prepositional phrases, especially in the historians. Tac. Germ. 32: "*Crebrae, ut inter vinolentos, rixae.*"

## CAUSAL AND ILLATIVE.

Note *etenim* very frequent in Cicero as equivalent of *enim*, or to add an additional reason, "for moreover."

*nam*, used in passing over a subject. Sall. Cat. 52. 33: "*Ignoscite Cethegi adolescentiae. . . Nam quid ego de Gabinio . . . loquar.*" Cf. Cic. Or. 1. 5. 18, and *passim*.

*quippe*, "inasmuch as," "since," "surely," "for." In Sall. and

<sup>1</sup> *autem* or *enim* stands third in a sentence when the first two words are closely connected—e.g., *haec sunt enim tua verba. Sine ullo autem metu redii.*

Livy=*enim*. In Cicero it seems sometimes to suggest irony—*e.g.*, Mil. 12: "*movet me quippe lumen curiae.*" Note *quippe qui, quae, quod*, "inasmuch as I, he, it," &c. Cf. *ἄρα* in Greek.

*nempe*, "of course," "certainly." Cic. Tusc. 3. 20. 49: "*Dicat quamlibet: nempe eam dicit in qua virtutis nulla pars insit.*" *ergo*, of a logical and necessary consequence, especially in arguments. *igitur*, of opinions which are expected to be based on a statement just made—*e.g.*, *videmus igitur* at the end of a summary or conclusion, "so we see."

*itaque*, of facts which result from what has been said="and so." Note too *hinc, inde, ideo, idcirco* (not very common), *quocirca, quapropter, propterea* (rare), *proin, proinde* (in appeals or injunctions). Liv. 1. 9. 2: "*Proinde ne gravarentur.*"

#### DISJUNCTIVE.

*vel* (orig. "choose," ind. pers. sing. imper. of *volo*) gives a choice of several things already mentioned.

*aut* (*a*) used of definite alternatives mutually exclusive. (*b*)=*aut saltem, aut potius*, "or rather," *ex pertinacia aut constantia . . . oritur seditio*, "from obstinate, or rather consistent, conduct . . ."

*-ve* is more copulative than adversative. It occurs mainly in the poets; occasionally, however, in Cicero, especially with numerals—*e.g.*, Ad Fam. 2. 1. 1, *his terve*.

*an* is used in the historians, especially Tacitus, as equivalent to *or*. Sall. Hist. 2. 10. D.: "*Perrexere in Hispaniam an Sardiniam.*" [This usage arose from a mental interrogation, "or was it to Sardinia?"]

#### INTERROGATIVE.

The principal forms of double interrogation are, *utrum . . . an; num . . . an; ne . . . an*. Particle omitted *-an* or *-ne*. *Nescio an, haud scio an*, "I rather think," "perhaps," usually followed by a negative. *Haud scio an Balbus non venturus sit.*

## AFFIRMATIVE AND CORRECTIVE.

*sane*, "we must admit," "yes," "certainly."

*sane quidem*, "yes indeed."

*prorsus*, "exactly," "certainly." Cic. Tusc. 2. 5. 14: "*Ita prorsus existimo*."

*inmo*, "nay, rather," "yes indeed." (Cf.  $\mu\epsilon\lambda\lambda\acute{o}\nu$ .) The exact extent of the qualification depending on the context. Often strengthened by *vero*, *potius*, *hercle*, &c.

*quidem*. Note *quidem* . . . *autem*,  $\mu\epsilon\lambda\lambda\acute{o}\nu$  . . .  $\delta\epsilon$ .

*certe*, "at any rate." "*Quo quid sit beatius mihi certe in mentem venire non potest*" (Cic. Tusc. 5. 28. 8).

## TRANSITIONAL.

"Moreover"—

*quin*.

*quinetiam*.

*huc accedat quod* (cf. *adde quod* in verse).

*huc accedit quod*.

*porro*, lit. further: "*Sequitur porro nihil deos ignorare*" (Cic. Div. 2. 51. 105).

*nec* . . . *non* (*vid. supra*, p. 38).

"Again"—

*quid?* Cf. Greek  $\tau\iota\ \delta\epsilon$ . An anticipatory question which forms a transition and draws attention to the sentence which follows.

*iam*, often used to introduce a new topic, "now we come to . . ." Carefully distinguish the fundamental meaning of *iam* =  $\eta\delta\eta$ , "by this time," and *nunc* =  $\nu\acute{\upsilon}\nu$ , "as the case now stands." Note *non iam*, *non amplius*=no longer, opp. to *nondum*, not yet.

The Relative in transitions is important, being used where in English we should use "whilst he," "yet he," "though he," &c. So, too, often at the beginning of a passage, especially in description of character, *qui vir*, &c., where we should say "this man," &c. Cf. too Cæsar, where *qua de causa*, *quam ab rem*, *quibus rebus cognitis*, *qua in re* are peculiarly common at the beginning of sentences.

*idem* is often used idiomatically to carry on the sense, *sapienter idem contrahes* . . . *vela*, "you will also do well to furl your sails."

## IRONICAL.

*quasi vero*, "as if forsooth." Used to refute a statement ironically. Cic. Planc. 71: *Quasi vero me tuo arbitratu et non meo gratum esse oporteat.*

*nisi forte*, "unless you'd have us believe," stronger than the preceding, introduces ἀπαγωγή εἰς ἄδυνον, *reductio ad absurdum*. Cf. Cic. Planc. 71: "*Nisi forte existimas eos idcirco vitæ meæ pepercisse quod de reditu meo nihil timerent.*"

*nisi vero* is used similarly.

*scilicet* (= *sci*; *licet*), used to introduce an ironical statement, ironical assent. Cic. Planc. 72: "*Scilicet homo sapiens excogitavi quamobrem,*" &c.

*videlicet* is often used in a rather similar sense—e.g., "*Ad sodalem M. Marcellum demigrasti. Homo enim videlicet timidus . . . vocem consulis perferre non potuit*" (Cic.)

*credo*, parenthetical. Cf. οἶμαι. Cic. Arch. 25: "*Itaque, credo, si civis Romanus . . . non esset . . . non potuit.*"

## ASSEVERATIVE.

In vivid arguments and passionate appeals *hercle*, *mehercle*, *medius fidius*, are frequently used—e.g., Cic. Planc. 9: "*Si, medius fidius, decem soli essent in civitate,*" &c.

## MISCELLANEOUS.

*tandem*, "I should like to know," in interrogations = δῆτα. *quid tandem hoc vult*, "what does this mean, pray?"

*esto*, cf. εἴτε, "well," "let be." *Esto, Marce, sed hanc certe voluptatem nunquam nobis ademeris*, "Ah well, this pleasure at any rate no one can rob us of."

## § 19. STYLE.

*Philosophical.*

*Models*.—Cicero, *De Officiis*; *De Oratore*; *Tusc. Disp.*; *Brutus*; *De Nat. Deor.*; *Acad.*; *De Fin.* (in order of facility).

*Note*—1. The oratorical period is used mainly, but never so completely as to be monotonous; rhetorical figures—*e.g.*, anaphora, interrogatio—are not unfrequent; the sentences are well rounded, the meaning being fully expressed.

2. Style of language somewhat turgid, single ideas often expressed by double words (*vid.* § 14 on Hendiadys): *e.g.*,—

*in harum artium liberalissimis studiis doctrinisque versati*,  
“the most elevated form of erudition.”

*immensum infinitumque*, “transcending all limits of space and time.”

*reicere atque aspernari*, “utterly reject.”

*suscipere atque profiteri*, “to profess a science.”

3. Archaic and poetical words are carefully avoided.

4. Greek words occur occasionally, especially to represent scientific terms, often qualified by *quod* (*quem*, &c.), *vocant* [Graeci]—*e.g.*, *mathematica* (ae), *arithmetica* (orum) [pure Latin numeri].

5. Words in *-io* occur more frequently than in Cicero's non-philosophical works, but are often qualified by a genitive—*e.g.*, *rerum*, *corporis*, *animi*; *-io* words are usually in the nominative—*e.g.*, *definitio*, but abl. *definiendo*; *contemplatio*, but *contemplando*.

6. Very abstract English philosophical terms must be made concrete by *simplifying* and giving the *sense* [*ratio* is often useful in this connection—*e.g.*, *ratio philosophandi*, &c.]: *e.g.*,—

“relative,” *cum ceteris comparatus*.

“absolute,” *per se*.

“ethics,” *philosophia quae est de vita et moribus*.

“logic,” *disserendi praecepta tradere*.



"theoretical, speculative philosophy," *philosophia quae in rerum contemplatione versatur.*

"ancient history," *veterum annales.*

"chronology," *temporum ratio.*

Some typical philosophical passages :—

Immortality of the soul :

Cic. Tusc. Quaest. i. §§ 18-70 ; ii. § 47 ; v. § 68.

Learning :

Cic. Tusc. Quaest. ii. § 13. Pro Archia, § 16. De Fin. v § 53. De Off. ii. §§ 2, 3 ; iii. § 1.

Style :

Cic. De Orator. iii. §§ 96, 155.

Religion :

Cic. De Legg., ii. § 30.

### *Characters.*

In dealing with description of character, the models usually recommended are Livy and Tacitus. Terse, epigrammatic neatness, and careful choice of words, should be aimed at. For typical characters, *vid.*—

Tac. Agric. 46, Agricola. Ann. 4. 1, Sejanus ; 4. 6, Tiberius ; 4. 52, Seneca (cf. 13. 2). Hist. 3. 86, Vitellius ; 1. 49, Galba ; 2. 72. 73, Germanicus ; 4. 6, Helvidius Priscus.

Livy, 26. 19, Scipio (cf. 28. 35, 38. 53) ; 24. 5, Hieronymus ; 21. 4 (cf. 28. 12), Hannibal ; 39. 40. 41. 44, Cato ; 40. 3. 4, Philippus ; 21. 63, Flaminius.

Sall. Catiline, 5, Catiline ; 25, Sempronius. Jugurtha, 59, Marius.

Cic. De Oratoribus, 1. 2, Hortensius ; Phil. 2. § 116, Caesar.

*Oratorical.*

*Models*—Cicero's speeches and the longer speeches in Livy (*vid.* list below). Of Cicero's speeches the following are considered the most carefully composed, and represent his best style: Pro Ligario; Pro Milone; Pro Murena; Pro Archia; Pro Cluentio; Pro Lege Manilia; In Verrem; In Catilinam.

1. Oratorical period is regularly employed, but not to such an extent as to be monotonous (*vid.* Philosophical, § 19).

2. Rhetorical figures are very much used—*e.g.*, chiasmus, interrogatio, asyndeton.

3. In the elaborate or impressive passages of a speech Cicero always maintains a well-measured flowing cadence, rhythmical and symmetrical. The proemia and perorations of his speeches afford the best examples of this: they should be carefully studied and *read aloud*.

4. In the narrative part of Cicero's speeches, *e.g.*, the statement of the case, events are described clearly and concisely in the order of their occurrence—*i.e.*, the historical period is employed.

5. In argument for the most part short vivid sentences occur, with frequent asyndeton and ellipse.

Some speeches in Livy:—

5. 3-6, Appius Claudius; 34. 2-4, Cato, against luxury; 21. 40. 41, Scipio to his soldiers; 21. 12. 13, Hanno to the Carthaginian senate; 28. 27-29, Scipio to his mutinous soldiers.

*Epistolary.*

*Models*—Cicero, Ad Atticum and Ad Familiares; Pliny, Epistolae (more elaborate and less natural than Cicero); Seneca.

1. Heading: *Salutem plurimam dicit* (S.P.D.), or Sal., or S.=*salutem dicit*; thus: Atticus Ciceroni S.P.D. or Sal.

2. The date is placed at the end, usually with *dabam* (sc. *tabellario*, I am giving this to the messenger), or *data* (sc. *epistula erat*), or D.—e.g., *dabam a. d. iv. Kal. Mart.* (For dates *vid.* § 15.)

3. Language plain and often colloquial. Cicero (Ad Fam. 9. 21) says he uses *cotidianis verbis*. For colloquialisms we may compare Plautus; as instances cf. the parataxis of such sentences as *facias vellem; jubeo veniat; suavium des volo*. Cf. too *male narras de*, "I am sorry to hear of"; *tua humanitas potest decipi*, "one so courteous as you." So *accipe; scito; habes*, "I have told you"; *cognosce*.

4. Quotations, especially in Greek, are frequent: e.g.,—

*αἰδέομαι Τρώας* [καὶ Τρώαδας ἑλκεσιπέπλους], I fear public opinion.

*καὶν ὑπὸ στεγῇ πυκνῆς ἀκοῦειν ψεκᾶδος εὐδύουσι φρενί.* Cf. *suave mari magno*, &c. (Lucr. 1.)

*ἀπροσδιόνυσον* = *malapropos*.

Proverbial fragments are not uncommon—e.g., *a teneris unguiculis, ut aiunt Graeci*.

5. Long sentences are rare; short sentences the rule. Ellipse of introductory particle is frequent, the

connection being by inference (*κατὰ σύνεσιν*); also ellipse of verb—*e.g.*, *tu vero ἀμύμων*, *sc. es*.

6. At the close of letters various complimentary sentences often occur: *e.g.*,—

*cura ut valeas.*

*si vales bene est ego valeo* or *S.V.B.E.E.V.*

*meis verbis Atticae suavius des volo.*

*Piliae salutem dicas et Atticae deliciis atque amoribus meis.*

*Si vales gaudeo; valeo*, or *S.V.G.V.*

7. The imperfect is frequently, but not by any means always, used in letters instead of the present—*i.e.*, to denote an action present at the time of writing but past at the time of receiving the letter. It occurs usually at the beginning or end of letters. *Cic. Att. iv. 3. 25: a. d. viii. Kal. haec scribebam hora nona. Milo campum iam tenebat*—"I am writing this . . ."

Typical letters:—

Consolatory:

*Cic. Ad Fam. iv. 5; vi. 3. Pliny, Ep. v. 8. 16.*

Congratulatory:

*Cic. Ad Fam. v. 7. 12. Pliny, Ep. ix. 7. 19.*

On literary subjects:

*Cic. Ad Att. xiii. 13; Ad Q. Fr. iii. 5. 6.*

On retirement:

*Cic. Ad Fam. vii. 1. 28; Ad Att. xi. 6.*

Jocular:

*Cic. Ad Fam. v. 15; xiv. 1. 2. 4. Pliny, Ep. viii. 16; vi. 4.*

*Historical.*

*Models*—Livy, Cæsar, Sallust, and to some extent Tacitus; *Object*—to narrate events clearly and tersely in the order of their occurrence.

## LIVY.

The chief characteristic of Livy's style<sup>1</sup> is his *picturesqueness*, attributable probably to his rhetorical training and to the widespread Roman belief that *Historia quasi solutum carmen est*. In ordinary narrative Livy employs periods of usually three or four *κῶλα* (*vide* § 16), but his style is vivid and full of variety, and in his more animated descriptions he often makes use of a series of detached sentences (*parataxis*), but never carries this to such an extent as to be monotonous. In detail note the following peculiarities of historic style in general, particularly Livy's:—

(1) Use of historic infinitive, which follows a nominative and is only used in *vivid* narrative—*repente equum immisi*; *hostes me* insequi; *nostri tela* inicere; *ita sum servatus*. The historic infinitive is not found in Cæsar, but is common in Tacitus.

(2) Use of parentheses, especially in long periods; often introduced by *id quod*,<sup>2</sup> &c. Liv. vi. 3: *Romani . . . clausas (id enim primum dictator imperaverat)*

<sup>1</sup> Livy's style is best exemplified by his later books; in the first decade it seems to vary considerably.

<sup>2</sup> Sometimes introduced by *et*. Cf. Sall. Jug. 52: *et iam die vesper erat*; so in Livy.

*portas inveniunt. So iam Samnites fugae (id quod maxime nostris animos addidit) se . . . mandabant.*  
Simpler parentheses too — e.g., *dictu mirabile* — are common.

(3) Parataxis and asyndeton : e.g.,—

27. 49 : *ille pugnantes . . . sustinuit ;  
ille fessos abnuentesque . . . accendit ;  
ille fugientes revocavit ,  
omissamque pugnam . . . restituit.*  
10. 39 : *pugnam poscunt ;  
poenitet dilatum certamen ;  
moram oderunt.*  
22. 43 : *initio fremitus ,  
deinde aperta vociferatio  
exposcentium stipendium debitum  
querentium annonam primo postremo famem.*

(4) Use of Anaphora (*vid. § 14*) :—

To make parallel and thus emphasise a given idea :

4. 15. 2 : *vim parantem ne iudicio se committeret  
vi coercitum.*

To express climax :

4. 15. 5 : *nullam nobilitatem, nullos honores nulla merita  
cuiquam ad dominationem pandere viam.*  
7. 35. 3 : *non fuga delatos  
nec inertia relictos hic vos circumvenit hostis :  
virtute cepistis locum,  
virtute hinc oportet evadatis.*

Of an antithesis. 21. 43. 10, 11, Hannibal's speech :

*hic vobis terminum laborum fortuna dedit ;  
hic dignam mercedem emeritis stipendiis dabit.*  
3. 72. 3 : *hoc legatos referre domum, hoc vulgari ; hoc  
socios audire, hoc hostes : quo cum dolore hos, quo cum  
gaudio illos !*

(5) Extended use of chiasmus in animated passages, especially to express a climax; often combined with Anaphora:—

27. 51. 4: *ut quisque audierat . . . legiones Romanas incolumes.*

7. 35. 3: *ego eandem quae duxit hunc*

23. 45. 4: *ibi virtutem bellicam ibi militarem disciplinam ibi praeteriti temporis famam ibi spem futuri extinctam.*

1. 28. 6: *Mettius ille est ductor itinoris huius, Mettius idem huius machinator belli, Mettius foederis Romani Albanique ruptor.*

*Cf. discessi ab eo bello in quo aut in acie cadendum fuit aut in aliquas insidias incidendum aut deveniendum in victoris manus aut ad subam confugiendum* (Cic. Ad. Fam. 7. 3. 3).

(6) Use of the fut. part. active<sup>1</sup>:—

To carry on the thought of the main sentence :

23. 14. 5: *Hannibal Capua recepta cum iterum Neapolitanorum animos temptasset in agrum Nola-num exercitum traducit ut . . . ita nihil praetermissurus.*

Also to express the intention and determination of the chief actor (a use which almost never occurs in Cicero, Draeger Synt., vol. ii. p. 775) :

23. 1. 5: *ipse mare inferum petit oppugnaturus Neapolim ut urbem maritimam haberet.*

3. 60. 8. *egreditur castris vallum invasurus ni copia pugnae fieret.*

<sup>1</sup> Participial constructions generally are commoner in Livy than Cicero. Kühnast shows that in the narrative, 21. 5: 1-9 (200 words), we have twelve participles and four gerunds, whilst in Cic. in Cat., 1. 1. 1-3 (about 240 words), only six participles are employed.

(7) Modal use of the ablative of the gerund and gerundive :—

30. 28. 54 : *senex vincendo factus.*

2. 38. 6 : *instigando suos quisque populos fecere.*

24. 5. 8 : *tendendo autem duo ad Carthaginienses, Thraso ad societatem Romanam, certamine ac studiis interdum in se convertebant animum adolescentis.*

(8) Vivid transition from one construction to another, bold constructions *κατὰ σύνεσιν*, transitions from *oratio obliqua* to *oratio recta*, &c. :—

Cf. 27. 49. 8 : *adeoque etiam victores sanguinis caedisque ceperat satietas ut postero die cum esset nuntiatum Livio consuli Gallos, &c., qui . . . non adfuisse aut . . . effugissent abire . . . posse, si . . . mittatur omnes deleri; supersint, inquit, aliqui nuntii, &c.*

4. 28. 3 : *circumventi igitur iam in medio ad unum omnes poenas rebellionis dedissent nū Vettius . . . clara voce hic praebituri inquit . . .*

(9) Use of the past participle neuter absolutely, especially in the abl. :—

9. 30. 10 : *impetrato ut manerent.*

Cf. Tac. H. 2. 49 : *explorato iam profectos amicos.*

(10) Frequent use of plural abstracts—e.g., *dignitates, religiones, somni, irae, &c.*

(11) Fulness of expression resulting from a repetition of the verb in the participle (cf. p. 16) : e.g.,—

*Romanos impetu suo protelant, protelatos persecuntur* (Sis., p. 27).

Cf. Caes. B. C. 1. 28 : *naves cum militibus reprehendunt, reprehensas excipiunt.*

(12) Adjectives or participles used to extend the predication—an English adverb :—

1. 58. 6 : *Lucretiam sedentem maestam in cubiculo.*

9. 24. 10 : *excurrentibus in publicum pavidis.*

6. 9. 3 : *rem Antiatem diuturniorem manere.*



## CÆSAR.

As our model of Cæsarian prose we should take the latter books of the 'De Bello Gallico.' As characteristic of his style note—

- (a) His careful choice of words, correctness of diction; he and Cicero show equal dislike for foreign words and strained constructions.
- (b) His concise and severely logical way of narrating events, free from all turgid phraseology and rhetorical devices, as is natural in a writer merely chronicling events to provide material for professed historians. Cf. Cicero (Brut. 261) of Cæsar's works, *Nudi sunt recti et venusti omni ornatu orationis tamquam veste detracto.*

In details note—

- i. Monotonous repetitions of abl. absolutes (not to be imitated).
- ii. Frequent use of impersonal verbs.
- iii. Neglect of the periodic construction of clauses, a preference being shown for asyndeton.
- iv. Frequent use of the present subjunctive for the imperfect in order to express things more vividly.

B. G. vii. 32 : *quod si diutius alatis fore ut . . .*

- v. Extended use of the abl. abs. :—

*communi consilio.*  
*omnibus suis incolumibus copiis.*

## TACITUS.

The style of Tacitus is too artificial and affected to be safely taken as a model for writing Latin prose. However, in two points he may be imitated, *but with judgment* :—

- (1) In his conciseness, use of curt incisive clauses.
- (2) His antithetical and epigrammatical expression ; but great care must be taken not to sacrifice clearness to these studied artifices.

Tacitus is usually recommended for descriptions of character (*vid.* § 20).

His vocabulary is often poetical (especially Vergilian), and must be used with care.

Some characteristics of Tacitean style :—

*Brevity*, especially by means of ellipses.

*Variety* in words and constructions ; lack of rhythm ; neglect of the “Ciceronian” period.

*Poetry* : use of poetical words and expressions, especially Vergilian reminiscences.

*Novelty* : strange words ; capricious extension of construction ; tentative Grecisms.

*Exx.* : free case uses, *e.g.*, *segnis occasionum* ; *cognoscendae antiquitatis* ; *desertus suis* ; *recreandae defectioni*, &c.

Infinitive after verbs of the emotions : *dedit facere* ; *oravit abire*, &c.

## SALLUST,

whose historical style Tacitus seems to have imitated, shows the same characteristics, but in a much less pronounced form. As a model for public school

Latin prose he is far superior to Tacitus, as a historian far inferior.

### § 20. SOME TYPICAL HISTORICAL PASSAGES.

#### Land battles :—

- Livy, 27. 46 (Metaurus), 8. 9; 28. 2; 6. 13; 9. 26; 2. 51; 40. 58; 22. 4-7 (Trasimene); 22. 44-52 (Cannæ); 30. 32-35 (Zama); 44. 41, 42 (Pydna); 4. 37.  
 Tacitus, Ann. 2. 16. *sqq.*; 4. 24, 25; 12. 33-36; 1. 63. Hist., 1. 79; 4. 18; 2. 40-43.  
 Caes., B. G. vii. 70-80 *sqq.*; 4. 37; 5. 23 (Tactics). B. C. 3. 85-97.  
 Sallust, Jug. 59; 97 (Surprise); 50.

#### Night attack :—

Tac. Hist. v. 21.

#### Battle and retreat :—

Liv. 6. 24.

#### Caudine forks :—

Liv. 9. 2.

#### Naval fights :—

- Caes. B. G. 3. 13-16.  
 Liv. 26. 39; 21. 49; 22. 19, 20.  
 Tac. Agric. 28. Ann. 2. 23, 24.

#### Sieges, &c. :—

- Tac. Hist. 4. 60; 5. 11-13 (Jerusalem); 3. 30-34 (Cremona). Ann. 14. 31. 22 (Camalodunum).  
 Caes. B. G. 6. 35-41 (Aduaticum); 7. 11 (Genabum); 7. 69-73 (Alesia); 7. 22, 25 (Avaricum); 2. 30, 31; 3. 21; 5. 42, 43. B. C. 2. 8-15 (Massilia).  
 Livy, 21. 78 (Saguntum); 24. 33, 34 (Syracuse, cf. 25. 23); 38. 4-7 (Ambracia); 34. 39; 26. 44-46 (New Carthage).  
 Sallust, Jug. 76.

## § 21. LATIN ESSAYS.

As models for the language of original Latin prose we may take Cicero's *De Off.*, *De Oratore*, *De Amicitia*, &c., and his best speeches. *Vid. supra*, §§ 19 and 21.

(a) Map out your proposed arguments carefully before beginning, to ensure clearness of the consecution of thought.

(b) Avoid long irrelevant introductions, plunge *in medias res*, and state how you intend to treat the subject.

(c) Study compression of ideas; express them in such a way that the connection is clear.

(d) Avoid platitudes; but a platitude in the form of a quotation will often pass muster.

(e) Similes should occasionally be introduced, and instances or allusions from Roman history and Roman life.

(f) Use good and idiomatic Latin, neither bald nor monotonous.

(g) A Latin essay may sometimes conveniently be expressed in the form of a dialogue or letter.

(h) The following are some of the more usual terms of transition, introduction, &c. :—

In the main statement (*propositio*) :

*primum, tum, post.*

*primum, deinde, tum, postremo.*

*primum, deinde, post, tum, ad extremum.*

In *praeteritio* :

*quid plura dicam de? quid commemorem? quid loquar de?*  
*mitto dicere, mitto quaerere, omitto, ut omitam, ut non*  
*dicam, praetermitto, praetereo, non dico, ut discedam ab.*

In *transitio* :

*deinceps dicendum est, videndum est.*

*sequitur illud quod . . .*

*proximum est ut doceam ; proximus est locus with gen.*

*reliquum est ut, . . . restat ut, . . . restat locus de, . . .*

*nunc venio ad.*

*nunc exponamus, videamus.*

*quid ? nonne, . . . ?*

*age vero, videamus.*

In *argumentum ex contrario* :

(i.) *an vero id ne feræ quidem faciunt ut ita ruant ut earum motus suum intelligamus ? tu tam egregios viros censes tantas res gessisse sine causa ?* (Cf. Pro Plancio, § 41.)

(ii.) *at id ne, &c.*

(iii.) *quid ? cum ne feræ quidem id faciant ut, &c.*

(iv.) *ergo id, &c., or id igitur.*

(v.) *Quid ? si ne feræ quidem faciant . . . ut non intelligamus, quanto magis tam egregii viri tantas res gesserunt non sine causa.*

Cf. too the ironical suppositions introduced by *nisi vero, nisi forte, quasi (vero), credo (vid. § 18)*.

In *revocatio* :

*sed hæc hæc hactenus ; nunc . . .*

*verum hæc missa facio ; illud quaero.*

*sed quid ego longinqua commemoro ?*

*sed quid opus est plura ?*

In *objectio* :

*at enim ; " some one will say."*

*quaerat quispiam ; forsitan dixerit quispiam ;*

*at dixerit quis.*

*Note.*—Remember that "to the Roman, not only in his forensic oratory but in his philosophical treatises and poems, there is ever present an op-

ponent whom he is always refuting, reproaching, or ridiculing."

(i) Some subjects :

The events in Rome, Nov. 63 B.C. (cf. Pro Rosc. Amerino).  
 Lucullus' services to Rome (cf. Pro Archia).  
 Caius Marius (Pro Rosc. Amer.)  
 A liberal education a comfort in adversity (Pro Archia).  
 Situation of Rome.  
 Greek and Roman character compared.  
 Career of C. Jul. Cæsar or of Augustus.  
 Vergil as supporter of the monarchy.  
 Causes of the defeat at Trasimene (Livy).  
*Orator nasciturus an fit?* (Cic. De Or.)  
 The choice of a profession (Cic. De Off.)  
 A day in the life of Horace (Hor. Sat.)  
 Origin of Roman satire (Hor. Ars. Poet.)  
 A Roman dinner-party (Hor. Epist.)

§ 22. ORTHOGRAPHY.

abicio, adicio, reicio, &c., <i>not</i>	dinosco, <i>earlier</i> dignosco.
abjicio, &c.	epistula, <i>not</i> epistola.
adulescens, <i>not</i> adolescens.	femina, <i>not</i> foemina.
a fui, <i>not</i> abfui.	harena, <i>not</i> arena.
annulus, <i>not</i> annulus.	harundo, <i>not</i> arundo.
artus, <i>earlier</i> arctus.	hiems, <i>not</i> hiemps.
Autumnus, <i>not</i> Auctumnus.	intellego, <i>not</i> intelligo.
caecus, <i>not</i> coecus.	Iuppiter, <i>not</i> Iupiter.
caelum, <i>not</i> coelum.	lacrima, <i>not</i> lachrima.
caerimonia, <i>not</i> cerimonia.	millia, <i>not</i> millia.
Camena, <i>not</i> Camœna.	mixtus, <i>not</i> mistus.
cena, <i>not</i> coena.	neglego, <i>not</i> negligo.
ceteri, <i>not</i> coeteri.	nuntio, <i>not</i> nuncio.
condicio, <i>not</i> conditio.	oboedio, <i>not</i> obedio.
conecto, conubium, <i>not</i> con-	paenitet, <i>not</i> penitet <i>or</i> poenitet.
necto, &c.	percontor, <i>not</i> percunctor.
contio, <i>not</i> concio.	proelium, <i>not</i> praelium.
cottidie <i>or</i> cotidie, <i>not</i> quotidie.	pulcher <i>or</i> pulcer.
ditio, <i>not</i> ditio.	quattuor, <i>not</i> quatuor.

quoties, *earlier* quotiens.  
 religio, *earlier* relligio.  
 reliquiae, *earlier* relliquiae.  
 repperi, reppuli, rettuli, *not*  
     reperi, &c.  
 satira *or* satura, *not* satyra.  
 scaena, *not* scena.  
 solacium, *not* solatium.  
 sollemnis, *not* sollennis.  
 stilus, *not* stylus.  
 suboles, *not* soboles.  
 suspicio, *not* suspitio.

tempto, *not* tento.  
 suadela, *not* suadella.  
 umerus, *not* humerus.  
 quom *or* cum, *not* quum.  
 umor, *not* humor.  
 Vergilius, *not* Virgilius.  
 offici, imperi, gen., *not* officii  
     imperii.  
 Kalendae, *not* Calendae.  
 atque, neque, before vowels,  
     *not* ac, nec.

### § 23. SOME ROMAN PROVERBS.

"To know a nation and its language one must know its proverbs." The proverbial expressions of the Romans enter so much into their literature, and are so *thoroughly Latin*, terse, antithetical, neat and alliterative, that they deserve more study than is usually accorded them by the aspirant to excellence in Latinity. The following are some of the better-known proverbs, taken from classical Latin for the most part. The list does not include those of late date, *e.g.*, *si vis pacem para bellum*, or proverbs which have been literally translated and so passed into English:—

*De stipula grandis acervus erit*, many a little makes a muckle.

*Rem acu tetigisti*, you've hit the nail on the head.

*Otia dant vitia*, Satan finds some mischief still for idle hands to do.

*Actam rem agere*, to waste time in useless labours; to grind sand.

*Poma dare Alcinoo*, to carry coals to Newcastle; so *lignum ferre in silvam*.

*Malo emere quam rogare*, he who asks for favours has a bad bargain in the end.

*Expertus metuit*, the burned child dreads the fire.

*Figulus figulo faber fabro invidet*, two of a trade never agree.

*Flamma fumo est proxima*, no smoke without fire.

*Cum insanientibus furere*, to do at Rome as the Romans do.

*Nec puero gladium* (sc. *dederis*), bairns shouldna hae chapping-sticks.

*Harenæ semina mandare*, of useless labour.

*Herculi clavam eripere*, of an impossibility.

*Onus est honos*, of statesmen; cf. uneasy lies the head which wears a crown.

*Incedis per ignes suppositos cineri doloso*, you walk over thin ice.

*Ad incilas redactus*, checkmated.

*Si pace frui volumus bellum gerendum est* (Cic.), the classical equivalent of the mediæval *si vis pacem para bellum*.

*Bovi clitellas imponere*, put a (horse's) pack-saddle on an ox.

*De caelo in caenum*, from heaven to hell.

*Canis caninam non est*, there is honour among thieves.

*In Care experiri*, ἐν Καρῇ κινδυνεύειν; cf. the later *fiat experimentum in corpora vili*.

*Carbonem pro thesauro invenire*, of disappointment.

*Certa amittimus dum incerta petimus*, a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.

*Cineri nunc medicina datur*, when the steed is stolen lock the stable door; cf. *clipeum post vulnera sumere*.

*Non omnes qui habent citharam citharaedi sunt*, 'tis not the cowl that makes the monk.

*Cornicum oculos configere*, the biter bit.

*Currentem incitare*, to spur a willing horse.

*Dictum factum*, no sooner said than done.

*Dimidium facti qui coepit habet*, well begun is half done.

*Ab alio expectes alteri quod feceris*, do as you'd be done by.

*Naviget Anticyram*, i.e., he needs hellebore to cure his madness, he should be in Bedlam.

*Anus ad armillum* (i.e., *vas vinarium*), sc. *redit*, old tricks are never forgotten.

*Uno in saltu apros capere duos*, to kill two birds with one stone; so *Duas parietes ex eadem fidelia dealbare*; cf. *duas res una mercede assequi*.

*Prius undis flamma* (sc. *miscbitur*), the stars will fall.

*Quam quisque norit artem in hac se exerceat*, each to his trade.



*Premor arte mea*, hoist on my own petard; cf. *in laqueos quos posuere cadunt*.

*Asino lyra* (sc. *superflue canit*), pearls before swine.

*Auro solent adamantinae perfringi fores*, every gate opens to a golden key.

*Tam similis quam lacte lacti est*, as like as two peas. Cf. *tam similis quam ovo ovum*; cf. *neque aqua aquaest similis*.

*De Varrone loquebamur; lupus in fabula; venit enim ad me*, talk of the devil . . .

*Aliud ex alio malum*, misfortunes never come singly; cf. *fortuna obesse nulli contenta est semel*.

*Inter manum et mentum*, betwixt cup and lip; cf. *inter os et offam*.

*Manus manum lavat*, neighbours help each other.

*Sus Minervam* (sc. *docet*), don't teach your grandmother.

*Parturiunt montes nascetur ridiculus mus*, much cry, little wool.

*Uris messes tuas*, you're cutting your own throat. Cf. *navem perforas in qua ipse navigas; ut vineta ego met caedam mea*.

*In scirpo nodum quaerere*, to make a mountain out of a mole-hill, to find a mare's nest, to tilt at windmills.

*Nudo detrahare vestimenta*, to get blood from a stone.

*Tunica propior pallio est*, blood is thicker than water; charity begins at home.

*Par pro pari* (referre), tit for tat.

*Non convalescit planta quae saepe transfertur*, a rolling stone gathers no moss.

*Inter vepres nascuntur rosae*, every cloud has a silver lining.

*Res ad triarios rediit*, of desperate circumstances.

## SECTION II.

### SENTENCES.

1. He sent soldiers to see whether the bridge was finished.

2. They said the city would be burnt unless we sent help at once.

3. Whether the nation thought there was danger of war, or whether they pretended to be afraid, the consul determined to punish them for violating the treaty.

4. Verres' imagination saw a grand opportunity : a great inheritance was matter of dispute ; litigation was inevitable ; he was sure to get something out of it.

5. The consul ordered all the women to be spared and the men to be killed.

6. There are no sacrifices which patriotism and a love of freedom will not make.

7. I will not object to their imputing this to me as a fault.

8. Well, I will tell you what he did to his relations, that you may understand that he values nothing in comparison with gold.

9. I was very nearly killed the day before yesterday.

---

10. His eloquence served only to paint his ignorance in stronger colours.

11. Aristippus used to assert that there was no need for the poor to envy the rich, since happiness depended on the mind and not on temporal circumstances.

12. The captain at the head of two battalions encouraged his men,—“Why” (or abl.), he said, “are you faltering? Am I not ready enough? Up now and at them.”

13. Milton in his ‘Areopagitica’ says that it is as bad to kill a good book as a good man. How few there are who really appreciate and follow out this precept!

14. He urged all in the ship to escape, if possible, to land, and not to try and save the goods in the ship.

15. The Britons, who are said to be the bravest sailors in the world, admire their own courage.

16. Democritus said that no one could be a great poet without madness.

17. The cold was so great on the top of the mountain that the snow never melted.

18. We are afraid that he may hurt himself by working too much in the fields.

19. Cicero wrote a long letter to say that his friends might say he was about to return to Rome.

20. Do not despise your enemies, that you may not seem to be ignorant of the nature of war.

21. Out of 10,000 Milesians, 200 alone survived to tell how many had fallen.

22. Perceiving night was approaching, and that he would be taken if he stayed any longer, he went off without any one noticing him.

23. He is weary of your long letters, which say nothing.

24. He was always talking about battles, to appear braver than the rest.

25. At the foot of the Alps, three hundred men swore that they would endure cold, hunger, labour, everything, that their country might be free.

26. The Spartans are not the men to run away under defeat: so brave are they, that they would rather be killed to a man.

27. Having pitched his camp near the gates, he sent a message to the consul.

28. He made me the same promise as Gaius.

29. The people of Miletus begged and prayed him not to be troublesome to them.

30. After the battle he set up a trophy of his victory, and offered to make an armistice with the enemy for twenty days, on the terms that each party should keep their own.

31. Sulla said that he was innocent of bribery.

32. With your usual valour you did not believe that you were conquered.

33. Other people's affairs are often of such a kind that it is better not to speak about them.

34. If an actor acts badly the people do not listen, but talk all the time he is acting.

35. He was the son of the consul, and lived ten days after his father's return from Spain.

36. He loses no opportunity of coming to Rome, which he says the gods have made the head of the world.

37. "What advantage," says he, "do you gain

from discipline?" "To be able," he replied, "to control anger."

38. When a man spends more money than he gains he is poor; when he gains more than he spends he is rich.

39. His father was six feet high; his brother was taller than his father.

40. You have already lost no opportunity of reviling me.

41. I cannot but think that the world is governed by the designs of the gods.

42. When he arrived, we asked him if he ran any risk on the road; and he said he had heard that there were robbers on the road, but had not seen any one.

43. We owe everything to Cæsar, whose soldiers have conquered the enemies of the city.

44. The Corinthians replied that they would not send reinforcements, and that, if they tried to compel them, they would resist.

45. Caius and I will buy the books, which are, as it were, the flower of what Tullius has written.

46. The Greeks thought that it was the duty of the man to do his own business and that of the city; of the woman, to weave and sew, and attend to house matters.

47. Caius and Marcus are opposed to each other: the one loves the laws of his country, the other is breaking them daily.

48. Your sister said that she would not finish the journey.

49. Claudius, who succeeded Caligula as Emperor of the Roman world, was poisoned by his second wife

Agrippina, who gave him poison in a dish of mushrooms; hence Martial's polite wish, "May you eat a mushroom such as Claudius ate."

50. But though the empire of Greece had been extended over the whole civilised Mediterranean world, and though its boundaries everywhere touched the confines of the surrounding barbarism, there had been no corresponding advance in internal stability.

51. Most mining shares now pay 10 per cent, but will probably rise. Buy early while they are cheap, and if necessary realise some of your real property to do so.

52. Cæsar replied that if he had thought it likely that the army would revolt, he would never have thought of leaving Rome.

53. When you have cut down a tree, drive between the bark and wood a wedge not less than three fingers broad.

54. Eighteen merchant ships were detained eight miles from this spot by the wind.

55. If I always had a courier to give a letter to, I should give as many as three an hour.

56. Cæsar took Cato's rebuke in good part.

57. DEAR SIR,—I write to inform you that on the day of the parliamentary election 200 soldiers arrived in the town and were told off to guard the polling-booths.—Yours,  
J. SMITH.

EDINR., *July 14, 1867.*

58. So far were our soldiers from being put in confusion by this loss, that, on the contrary, they were still more incited and inflamed with anger.

59. Drusus read aloud the letter of his father, in

which it was written that he had a special concern for the brave legions with whom he had waged very many wars.

60. I believe that the elections will be appointed for the 11th of November.

61. Scaptius was not satisfied with 12 per cent at compound interest.

62. He has left one Furius, of Spanish extraction, heir to five-sixths of his estate, from which inheritance he will receive, I think, little short of eighty thousand pounds sterling.

63. Lucius Piso, father of that Piso who was treacherously killed by Valerius Festus in Africa, said that he saw no one in the Senate whom he had consulted when consul.

64. He promised them as much money as they liked, provided they kept me out of the ædileship.

65. I would rather be Pheidias than the very best of carpenters.

66. 270 bowls of gold were there, each of which weighed about a pound.

67. There is no one who can walk seventy miles in two or even three days.

68. I don't care a straw for your opinions.

69. I could not make out which of the two had done it.

70. The disaster at Cannæ filled Rome with unprecedented panic.

71. Octavian conquered Antony at Mutina. He then returned to Rome. There he overawed the Senate into creating him consul. He was at the time about thirty years old.

72. (One period.) About six o'clock on Saturday, the 6th of July, I wrote a letter to my cousin asking him to pay me a visit. I forgot to post the letter, so he never came.

73. Atticus took the inheritance of his cousin, from which he is said to have received about eleven million sesterces, and to have lent the greater part of this sum to Calvus at 10 per cent.

74. I think Brutus will have with him both the mob of the city and also the Conservative party, if he gives them assurance.

75. Cæsar having written word that he would come into the Alsian district, his friends wrote to him not to do so: many would be troublesome to him, and he to many.

76. The Romans after Theodoric's death confessed that no one had ever better deserved to rule over them.

77. I am sorry to hear of Cælius' death, of which you told me recently in a letter.

78. Cæsar would not allow anything to delay the commencement of his march.

79. Scipio replied that he would do what he had done in the case of the Nervii.

80. Rich men are envied for their wealth, poor men for their contentment.

81. The hot - tempered captain perceived the treachery that was intended, and answered in haste (or obl.), "Do not send messengers to that perfidious people. The citizens have sworn to admit nobody. If you will send some one, don't send any one you have a liking for."



82. It is said that Agesilaus lived to the age of seventy-five.

83. I could neither imitate the orations which Thucydides has introduced into his History if I would, nor perhaps would I if I could.

84. The freedman of Servilius, who died at Naples on the 8th of August, has left nearly 80 million sesterces—invested, they say, some at 6, some at 7 per cent; and it is thought that Brutus has been left heir to half the property.

85. In the Roman army every legion was divided into ten cohorts.

86. He promised to come on the 11th of September, but did not come till the 11th of October.

87. The general encouraged his soldiers, saying (or obl.), "Why do you make useless lamentations? Press on. Why are we delaying here? Will not the enemy crush us while we delay? If you had obeyed me before, you would have been in safety by this time; and even now you may yet be safe. Be of good courage. Soon the cold will grow less severe."

88. I fear the prodigal Balbus will die within the week. If so, all he has will be sold, and nothing left to support his child.

89. The Cretans had sent envoys to Pompey in Pamphylia. He did not remove from their minds all fear of absolute surrender, but ordered them to provide hostages.

90. Would that you thought as I did; or, since that is impossible, would that you would think that I mean well!

91. The emperor was informed that the enemy

were approaching. He consequently fortified the camp with a palisade, and then drew up his men for battle.

92. Although every one has admired Demosthenes, yet no one has ever attained to his glory.

93. I am so far from admiring him, that I shall try to injure him on all possible occasions.

94. I happened at that time to be absent for a month.

95. All the best men must be persuaded.

96. He died at Carthage ten days before his youngest son.

97. The sooner the holidays come the better I shall be pleased.

98. Two of a trade never agree.

99. Marcus led his forces with great speed towards Tarentum. He was followed more slowly by the eleventh legion.

100. I am sorry for you for having lost your book.

101. Aulus thus encouraged his men: "Why were they afraid? The enemy were barbarians and ill-armed men whom they had often defeated. Let them fight bravely and remember that they were Romans."

102. Cicero was made consul by his fellow-citizens, but for many reasons he became unpopular with them, and they expelled him from Rome.

103. It is said that the Romans once fortified London with a wall, ditch, and castles, and that nearly two thousand years ago it was a most delightful city.

104. On my making that request, he replied that he would try and help me.

105. Since you have done this, you will not hesitate to tell us why you did it, and whether you think it will further your own interests.

106. Who is ignorant of the words of that famous commander who said, on the point of death, that he hoped that all would do their duty?

107. Most people thought that he would be condemned for extortion.

108. He was so disgusted at the cowardice of the soldiers, that he cried out that they would not be far from being conquered.

109. The general ordered his men to be ready to depart next day: they might take with them anything they could carry.

110. It is quite clear what we ought to do if this happens.

111. I beg you most earnestly not to attempt to do any such thing: if you do, you will certainly kill yourself.

112. Socrates used to execrate the man who was the first to separate expediency from right.

113. With his usual folly the fellow denied it all, and that too in my presence.

114. There is no doubt that if he pities us he will be a great protection to us in these sad calamities; and indeed the town has now been surrounded by the enemy with a ditch, so that I fully expect that it will be captured in ten days from now.

115. I sat down to dinner at three o'clock at Volumnius': on the seat above me was Atticus; on that below Volumnius, your intimate friends.

116. The three joint-commissioners having come

too late to put out a fire in Holy Street, being accused before the people by the tribunes, were condemned.

117. Though many people were present at the time, no one could say for certain who had done the deed; but, since he had weapons on him, he was arrested.

118. London is not only the capital of Britain, but also of the British empire. Like that ancient city which was called the mistress of the world, it is built on a few hills.

119. While Caius was saying this, the citizens felt that no one would ever believe his words.

120. It is to the interest of all that he should be acquitted of the capital charge.

121. The defendant is lying, in order that the jury may not know the truth and acquit him.

122. Horace's poems were sent to my brother by his friend Metellus, who also presents his compliments to you and to your father.

123. On my making that request, he replied that he would try to help me.

124. Cæsar presented the slave who had informed him of the sedition with a large sum of money.

125. He said he would receive them as guests when they came here, on condition that they would receive him when he went there.

126. Nothing is more difficult than to prevent an obstinate man from following out his own plans.

127. On finishing his journey satisfactorily, he endeavoured to persuade Cæsar to go by the same way.

128. He is afraid that he will remember the injury.

129. They said that from his habit of not walking

he had become so weak in his legs as not to be able to walk a mile.

130. Famine was now gradually working its way into the heart of the beleaguered city: it seemed certain that with the strict blockade the crowded population must in the end be driven to capitulate.

131. But I shall be told he is a man of most unimpeachable veracity. Perhaps he is. But does a man of his character tell the truth when doing so damages his interests?

132. On the narrow top of the dyke, which in many places did not exceed nine paces in breadth, five thousand combatants were engaged.

133. The enemy, on the other hand, know the real state of affairs, feel more assured of their object, have hope of profit, and a secure retreat if they fail.

134. Whilst this was going on the French cavalry took to flight.

135. The question now is this, "Ought we or ought we not to have taken measures for making a highroad before starting on our expedition?"

136. I wish to heaven you had told me this before!

137. Unless I find on my return that you have carried out my orders and executed the conspirators, there is little chance of your seeing another sunrise.

## SECTION III.

### CONTINUOUS LATIN PROSE.

#### I.

The legions were spoiled by victory, and enervated by their long repose in Italy. The tremendous labours imposed upon them by their general had thinned their ranks. The only man who had any influence over them had been absent, almost unheard of, for a year; and when orders to embark for Sicily arrived, the storm burst. The men refused to obey unless the promised presents were paid to them at once, and threw stones at the officers sent by Cæsar. The mutineers set out in bodies to extort fulfilment of the promises from the general in the capital. Cæsar ordered the few soldiers in the city to occupy the gates, and suddenly appeared among the furious bands demanding to know what they wanted. They exclaimed "Discharge!" Their request was immediately granted. As to the presents promised on the day of triumph, as well as the lands destined for them though not promised, Cæsar added they might apply to him on the day when he and the other soldiers should triumph; in the triumph itself they could not of course participate, as having been previously discharged.

## 2.

After the desertion of a body which formed the strength of his army, Lautrecius durst no longer face the confederates. He retired towards Milan, encamped on the banks of the Adda, and placed his chief hopes of safety in preventing the enemy from passing that river,—an expedient for defending a country so precarious, that there are few instances of its being employed with success against any general of experience or abilities. Accordingly Colonna, notwithstanding the vigilance and activity of Lautrecius, passed the Adda with little loss, and obliged him to shut himself up within the walls of Milan, which the confederates were preparing to besiege, when an unknown person, who never afterwards appeared, either to boast of this service or to claim a reward for it, came from the city, and acquainted Moronius that, if the army would advance that night, the Ghibellini or Imperial faction would put them in possession of one of the gates.

## 3.

This gate was the only one they had to defend, the high granite walls and stiff palisading being unbroken at any other point. If this could be defended, there was supposed to be little fear of the prisoners being able to break out elsewhere. So far they seemed not to have thought of making the attempt, but to be concentrating their whole strength upon carrying the gate. It seemed as though they might succeed. Their method was this. They lifted the huge pole to about the level of their shoulders, poising it like a mere

wand, and then making a short run with it, dashed it with a loud cheer against the massive portal, the bars of which were becoming much bent under this rough treatment. The Americans worked in sullen silence, but the French prisoners were making a considerable noise, shouting, cheering, and giving orders. There did not appear to be much organisation about the affair, probably through the officers having declined to lead it.

## 4.

If we are the friends of freedom, personal and political,—and we all profess to be so, and most of us, more or less, are striving after it more completely for our own country,—how can we withhold our sympathy from a Government and a people amongst whom white men have always been free, and who are now offering an equal freedom to the black? I advise you not to believe in the “destruction” of the American nation. If facts should happen by any chance to force you to believe it, do not commit the crime of wishing it. I do not blame men who draw different conclusions from mine from the facts, and who believe that the Restoration of the Union is impossible. As the facts lie before our senses, so must we form a judgment on them. But I blame those men that wish for such a catastrophe. For myself, I have never despaired, and I will not despair. In the language of one of our old poets, who wrote, I think, more than three hundred years ago, I will not despair—

“For I have seen a ship in haven fall,  
After the storm had broke both mast and shroud.”



From the very outburst of this great convulsion I have had but one hope and one faith, and it is this—that the result of this stupendous strife may be to make freedom the heritage for ever of a whole continent, and that the grandeur and prosperity of the American Union may never be impaired.

## 5.

Never was the field taken with deadlier animosity to an enemy than that with which Tippoo regarded his antagonists. Like Hannibal's to Rome, the hatred of the Sultaun to Britain was hereditary and implacable. In the infancy of English glory, a foe like him was reckoned truly formidable. His military talents were considerable; and, with excellent judgment, and untrammelled by Eastern presumption, he saw the defects of native discipline, and laboured to remove them. He had striven, and with success, through the agency of Europeans, to introduce into his camp the improved systems of modern warfare; and the army of the Mysore had, within a few years, undergone a mighty change. Many confidential communications that passed between the Sultaun and his chief officers, found after the fall of the capital, prove with what assiduity he had devoted his whole attention to the establishment of a force that, by physical and numerical superiority, should crush a power he detested, and overthrow England's dominion in the East. Tippoo's infantry were tolerably drilled; his artillery were respectable; and though his numerous horse were quite unequal to meet and repel the combined charge of

British cavalry, still, as irregulars, they were excellent—alike dangerous to an enemy from their rapid movement, the audacity with which their sudden assault was made, and the celerity, when repulsed, with which their retreat was effected.—MAXWELL.

## 6.

It was hastily decided to attempt to escape at several points simultaneously, in the hope that the attention of the guard without might be attracted and confined to only one. The difficulty of scaling the walls was very great, but by good fortune they discovered a long ladder suspended behind the guard-room, and a shorter one elsewhere—such things being, of course, as a rule, carefully kept out of the prisoners' way. Other things were also found by which to obtain an elevation. The rough furniture from the guard-room, stools out of the wards, and other articles, were piled up, and slowly, one by one, men began to surmount the obstacles between them and the road outside. Many put themselves at once *hors de combat* by climbing too impetuously the iron spikes; but, by persevering, in about half an hour they had built up a sort of stage under the outer wall (it will be remembered there were two, about twenty feet apart), and were holding themselves in readiness to scramble over at a sign from the leader.

## 7.

But its glory and its power rose not from the sepulture of the Dukes of Burgundy, but from the entrance

of the living Bernard within its walls. Bernard was born of noble parentage in Burgundy. His father was a man of great bravery and unimpeachable honour and justice; his mother, likewise of high birth, a model of devotion and charity. Bernard was the third of six brothers; he had one sister. The mother, who had secretly vowed all her children to God, took the chief part in their early education, especially in that of Bernard, a simple and studious, a thoughtful and gentle youth, yet even in childhood of strong will and visionary imagination. The mother's death confirmed the influence of her life. Having long practised secretly the severest monastic discipline, she breathed out her spirit amid the psalms of the clergy around her bed: the last movement of her lips was praise to God.

## 8.

Man, though he has great variety of thoughts, and such, from which others as well as himself, might receive profit and delight; yet they are all within his own breast, invisible and hidden from others, nor can of themselves be made appear. The comfort and advantage of society not being to be had without communication of thoughts, it was necessary that man should find out some external sensible signs, whereby those invisible ideas, which his thoughts are made up of, might be made known to others. For this purpose nothing was so fit, either for plenty or quickness, as those articulate sounds which, with so much ease and variety, he found himself able to make. Thus we may conceive how words, which were by nature so well

adapted to that purpose, came to be made use of by men as the signs of their ideas,—not by any natural connection that there is between particular articulate sounds and certain ideas, for then there would be but one language amongst all men, but by a voluntary imposition, whereby such a word is made arbitrarily the mark of such an idea.

## 9.

Meanwhile Charles, satisfied with the easy and almost bloodless victory which he had gained, and advancing slowly with the precaution necessary in an enemy's country, did not yet know the whole extent of his good fortune. But at last a messenger despatched by the slaves acquainted him with the success of their noble effort for the recovery of their liberty; and at the same time deputies arrived from the town, in order to present him with the keys of their gates, and to implore his protection from military violence. While he was deliberating the proper measures for this purpose, the soldiers, fearing they should be deprived of the booty they expected, rushed suddenly and without orders into the town, and began to kill and plunder without distinction. It was then too late to restrain their cruelty, their avarice, or their licentiousness. All the outrages of which soldiers are capable in the fury of a storm, all the excesses of which men can be guilty when their passions are heightened by the contempt and hatred which difference in manners and in religion inspires, were committed. Above 30,000 of the innocent inhabitants perished on that unhappy day, and

10,000 were carried away as slaves. Muley Hassan took possession of the throne, surrounded with carnage, abhorred by his subjects on whom he had brought such calamities, and pitied even by those whose rashness had been the occasion of them.

## IO.

The Persian generals were astonished and alarmed by the rapidity of Belisarius, and reflected with anxiety on the consequence of a defeat at such a distance from their frontiers, to which not a single fugitive might escape to tell the melancholy tale. A victory, on the other hand, would by no means be equally decisive, since Belisarius might then collect his broken forces within the ramparts of Chalcis or of Antioch, and firmly stand siege until succours should arrive. Moved by these considerations, and disheartened by their overthrow at Dara, they determined to abandon their enterprise, and to retrace their steps. They accordingly marched back to the Euphrates, and were followed by Belisarius, who made no attempt to harass or overtake them. He perceived that a battle could hardly increase, but might easily forfeit, the advantages bestowed by their voluntary flight, and therefore avoided giving them any opportunity for an engagement.

## II.

The Romans were never able to forgive Hannibal for having inflicted on them so many defeats. The truth is, he was too great for them to suffer him to live.

Though Carthage had been humiliated to the dust, and he himself was by this time an old man, they demanded his surrender. On hearing of this demand, Hannibal withdrew from the city and sought refuge at the Court of Antiochus, King of Syria. After his defeat at the battle of Magnesia he fled to Bithynia, where he was still pursued by the cruelty and hatred of the Romans. Ambassadors were sent to Prusias, who demanded the person of Hannibal. The craven king was, it is said, quite willing, and gave directions for the arrest of the Carthaginian. Guards were set round the house, and all the paths to it were blocked, so that, when the Romans approached, Hannibal found egress impossible, and to avoid falling into the hands of his foes, retiring to his chamber he poisoned himself.

## 12.

The third day he was informed that Ariovistus was advancing with all his forces to take possession of Vesontio, which is the capital of the Sequani, and that he had already got three days' march beyond his own territories. Cæsar now judged it essentially necessary to use every possible precaution, in order to prevent the town from falling into his hands; for it was not only full of all sorts of warlike stores, but likewise strongly fortified by nature, so as to furnish the greatest facilities for prolonging the war. For the river Dubis, as if drawn round it with a pair of compasses, nearly encloses the whole town; and the intervening space is occupied by a mountain of great

height, so that the bottom of it reaches to the banks of the river. A wall surrounding this mountain gives it the strength of a citadel and joins it to the town. Hither Cæsar marched, without intermission, day and night; and having possessed himself of the place, stationed there a strong garrison.

## 13.

I make it a question whether any wise prince or state, in the continuance of a war which was not purely defensive, or immediately at his own door, did ever propose that his expense should perpetually exceed what he was able to impose annually upon his subjects. Neither, if the war last many years longer, do I see how the next generation will be able to begin another; which in the course of human affairs, and according to the various interests and ambition of princes, may be as necessary for them as it hath been for us. And if our fathers had left us deeply involved, as we are likely to leave our children, I appeal to any man what sort of figure we should have been able to make these twenty years past. Besides, neither our enemies nor our allies are upon the same foot with us in this particular. France and Holland, our nearest neighbours, will much sooner recover themselves after a war.

## 14.

The weather was dreadful; the snow already fell in heavy flakes; the cold was intense; and the soldiers, burdened not only with their arms, but with provisions

for several days in every man's knapsack, were slowly toiling over a road rendered almost impassable by the multitude of carriages which had already furrowed its surface. Insensible to the severity of the weather, Napoleon instantly halted, dismissed his own suite to a distance, formed the private soldiers into a dense circle round him, and there harangued them on the situation and prospects of the campaign. He thanked them for the constancy with which they had encountered difficulties and endured privations, the severest to which they could be exposed in war; demonstrated to them the situation of the enemy, cut off from his own country, surrounded by superior forces, and obliged to fight in order to open the only avenue which remained for his escape. In the great battle which was approaching he confidently promised them victory, if they continued to act with the resolution which they had hitherto evinced. This speech was listened to with profound attention. No sooner was it concluded than shouts and warlike acclamations broke out on all sides, and the joyful visages of the soldiers demonstrated that they fully appreciated the immense advantages which their own exertions and the skill of their chief had already secured for them.

## 15.

The city was strongly fortified both by art and nature; it contained a large Gothic garrison, and could not be reduced without a regular siege. Belisarius accordingly invested it both by sea and land.



Meanwhile a deputation from the Neapolitans endeavoured to dissuade him from his enterprise. Their spokesman, whose name was Stephen, represented that the inhabitants were withheld by the Gothic soldiers from displaying their feelings in his favour, and that these soldiers having left behind them, at the mercy of Theodatus, their wives, their children, and their property, could not surrender the city without incurring the vengeance of the tyrant. "And what benefit," he added, "could ensue to the imperial army from our forcible subjection? Should you succeed in your subsequent attempts upon the capital, the possession of Naples will naturally and without effort follow that of Rome: should you, on the contrary, as is not improbable, be worsted, your conquest of the city would be useless and its preservation impossible."

## 16.

In this battle the Athenians won most glory; and among them the most honoured was Hermolycus, who fell afterwards in a war with the men of Carystos. And when the Greeks had slain most of the Persians, whether in the battle or as they fled, they brought out the booty to the seashore, and then, having burnt the ships and the wall, sailed away to Samos. There they took counsel for the safety of Ionia, and how they might place the Ionians in some part of Hellas which they could defend, while they left Ionia to the barbarians. For they were persuaded that it was impossible that they could stay to guard Ionia for ever; and if they did not do so,

they had no hope that the Ionians would escape unhurt by the Persians. The Peloponnesians therefore thought that they ought to give to the Ionians the lands of those Greeks who had taken the side of the king. But the Athenians would not suffer Ionia to be given up to their enemies, or that the men of the Peloponnesus should take thought for places to which the Athenians had sent their people; and as they stood out obstinately, the Peloponnesians yielded.

## 17.

Thus all was got ready in time: the Dictator led them forth, and they marched so rapidly that by midnight they had reached Mount Algidus, where the army of the Consul was hemmed in.

Then the Dictator, when he had discovered the place of the enemy's army, ordered his men to put all their baggage down in one place, and then to surround the enemy's camp. They obeyed, and each one raising a shout began digging the trench and fixing his stakes, so as to form a palisade round the enemy. The Consul's army, which was hemmed in, heard the shout of their brethren, and flew to arms; and so hotly did they fight all night, that the Æquians had no time to attend to the new foe, and next morning they found themselves hemmed in on all sides by the trench and palisade, so that they were now between two Roman armies. They were thus forced to surrender. The Dictator required them to give up their chiefs, and made their whole army pass under

the yoke, which was formed by two spears fixed upright in the ground, and a third bound across them at the top.

## 18.

The enemy stand there in battle array ; either they or you must perish ; both they and you have sworn not to retreat, and there is no possible safety but in victory. In numbers they are your match, but in valour and experience of war you far surpass them. They come fresh from the city and civic pursuits ; you have been trained in arms almost from your cradle, and have known no home but the camp ; they—most of them at least—now stand before an enemy for the first time, while you but see before you a danger often encountered before. Fight then as your city and families expect you will fight, as your valour and reputation demand, as your danger and the national crisis necessitate.

## 19.

In far different plight, and with far other feelings, than they had entered the pass of Caudium, did the Roman army issue out from it again upon the plains of Campania. Defeated and disarmed, they knew not what reception they might meet with from their Campanian allies : it was possible that Capua might shut her gates against them, and go over to the victorious enemy. But the Campanians behaved faithfully and generously. They sent supplies of arms and clothing

and of provisions to meet the Romans even before they arrived at Capua ; they sent new cloaks, and the lictors and fasces of their own magistrates, to enable the consuls to resume their fitting state, and when the army approached their city the senate and people went out to meet them, and welcomed them both individually and publicly with the greatest kindness. No attentions, however, could soothe the wounded pride of the Romans ; they could not bear to raise their eyes from the ground, nor to speak to any one : full of shame, they continued their march to Rome.

## 20.

Frederick was succeeded by his son, a prince who, in the opinion of every one, possessed great talents for administration, but whose character was disfigured by odious vices. He was diligent in the transacting of business ; and he was the first man who formed the design of obtaining for Prussia a place among the great nations of the earth, by means of a powerful army. Strict economy enabled him to keep up in time of peace a force of sixty thousand troops. These troops were selected from the strongest men, and trained in so strict a discipline that even the flower of the French or English army was not to be compared to them. The master of such a force could not but be regarded by all his neighbours as a valuable ally or a formidable enemy.

## 21.

When they arrived at Westminster, whither he was carried in a sedan, being unable to walk on account of his age, a great concourse was assembled ; and some, remembering his former glory, pitied the old man, but the greater part were filled with anger against him on account of his supposed betrayal of the port, but chiefly because he had thwarted the interests of the populace in his later years, on which charge he had not even been allowed the opportunity of defending himself and of pleading his own cause. So after certain legal formalities had been gone through, he was condemned, and handed over to the executioner. When he was being led to death, a Mr Goodlove, whom he had known intimately, met him and with tears exclaimed, "Alack then, Sir John ! how unjustly you are treated, how undeserved are your sufferings !" "But not unexpected," he replied ; "this is the end that most good men have met with in our country."

## 22.

The soil was soft and slippery ; the rain rusted the men's spear-heads, soaked their leathern accoutrements, and swelled their wooden shields ; the wind threw limbs of large trees across their path, which possibly the enemy had sawn half through beforehand. Before they had pitched their first encampment, the Romans had been roughly handled by the enemy, who now closed upon them to prevent their escape. That night they traced their lines with fail-

ing strength and spirit. In the morning they staggered on with diminished numbers, and already they had almost lost the appearance of a legionary force. They had emerged, however, now from the woods, and had gained the open upland of swamp and moor which slopes from the hill country to the valleys of the Ems and Lippe. But the enemy meanwhile had increased in numbers and confidence. Redoubling their attacks, they pressed the fugitives on every side. The soldiers had no reliance on their imperator, and as he lost his control over them, Varus lost equally all command over himself. Remembering the example of his father and grandfather, who, it seems, had both put an end to their own lives, he threw himself in despair on his sword. So did many of his officers. The soldiers, deprived of their leaders, were butchered without organised resistance. The cavalry escaped from the field only to be hunted down at a distance. The Germans had taken their measures well, and only a few stragglers escaped from the terrible destruction.

—MERIVALE.

## 23.

While their minds were in this state of suspense and agitation, Fiesco appeared. With a look full of alacrity and confidence he addressed himself to the persons of chief distinction, telling them that they were not now called upon to partake of the pleasures of a banquet, but to join in a deed of valour which would lead them to liberty and immortal renown. He set before their eyes the exorbitant as well as

intolerable authority of the elder Doria, which the ambition of Giannetino, and the partiality of the Emperor to a family more devoted to him than to their country, were about to render perpetual. "This unrighteous domination," continued he, "you have it in your power to resist, and establish the freedom of your country upon a firm basis. The tyrants must be cut off. I have taken the most effectual measures for the purpose. My associates are numerous. I can depend upon my allies and protectors if necessary. Happily the tyrants are as secure as I have been careful. Their insolent contempt of their countrymen has banished the suspicion and timidity which usually render the guilty quick-sighted to discern and sagacious to guard against the vengeance they deserve. They will now feel the blow before they suspect any hostile hand near. Let us sally forth, then, that we may deliver our country by one generous effort, almost unaccompanied by danger and sure of success."—ROBERTSON.

## 24.

Clive was subjected to the most unsparing examination and cross-examination, and afterwards bitterly complained that he, the Baron of Plassey, had been treated like a sheep-stealer. The boldness and ingenuousness of his replies would alone suffice to show how alien from his nature were the frauds to which, in the course of his Eastern negotiations, he had sometimes descended. He avowed the arts which he had employed to deceive Omichund, and resolutely said

that he was not ashamed of them, and that, in the same circumstances, he would act again in the same manner. He admitted that he had received immense sums from Meer Jaffier, but he denied that, in doing so, he had violated any obligation of morality or honour. He laid claim, on the contrary, and not without some reason, to the praise of eminent disinterestedness. He described in vivid language the situation in which his victory had placed him: great princes dependent on his pleasure; an opulent city afraid of being given up to plunder; wealthy bankers bidding against each other for his smiles; vaults piled with gold and jewels thrown open to him alone. "By heavens, Mr Chairman," he exclaimed, "at this moment I stand astonished at my own moderation."

## 25.

After the death of the Prophet of Mecca, his lieutenants and the companions of his first exploits carried on his great work. The sight of conquered provinces only increased the fanaticism and the bravery of the Saracens. They had no fear of death in the field of battle, for, according to the words of their prophet, paradise, with all its voluptuous pleasures, awaited those who precipitated themselves upon the enemy, and behind them hell opened its abysses. Their conquests were so much the more rapid, from their uniting, in their military and religious government, the prompt decision of despotism with all the passions that are met with in a republic. Masters of Persia and Syria, they soon took possession of Egypt: their



victorious battalions flowed on into Africa, planted the standard of the Prophet upon the ruins of Carthage, and carried the terror of their arms to the shores of the Atlantic. From India to the Straits of Cadiz, and from the Caspian Sea to the ocean, language, manners, religion, everything was changed : what had remained of Paganism was annihilated, together with the worship of the Magi ; Christianity scarcely subsisted, and Europe itself was threatened with a similar destruction. Constantinople, which was the bulwark of the West, saw before its walls innumerable hordes of Saracens: several times besieged both by sea and land, the city of Constantine only owed its safety to the Greek fire, to the assistance of the Bulgarians, and to the inexperience of the Arabs in the art of navigation.

## 26.

It will seem strange to some that Cicero, when he had certain information of Catiline's treason, instead of seizing him in the city, not only suffered but urged his escape, and forced him, as it were, to begin the war. But there was good reason for what he did, as he frequently intimates in his speeches : he had many enemies among the nobility, and Catiline many secret friends, and though he was perfectly informed of the whole progress and extent of the plot, yet the proof being not ready to be laid before the public, Catiline's dissimulation still prevailed and persuaded great numbers of his innocence, so that if he had imprisoned and punished him at this time as he deserved, the whole faction was prepared to raise a general clamour

against him by representing his administration as a tyranny and the plot as a forgery contrived to support it ; whereas by driving Catiline into rebellion, he made all men see the reality of their danger ; while from an exact account of his troops he knew them to be so unequal to those of the Republic that there was no doubt of his being destroyed if he could be pushed to the necessity of declaring himself before his other projects were ripe for execution.

## 27.

Compare the two. This I offer to give you is plain and simple ; the other full of perplexed and intricate mazes. This is mild ; that harsh. This is found by experience effectual for its purposes ; the other is a new project. This is universal ; the other calculated for certain colonies only. This is immediate in its conciliatory operation ; the other remote, contingent, full of hazard. Mine is what becomes the dignity of a ruling people, gratuitous, unconditional, and not held out as a matter of bargain or sale. I have done my duty in proposing it to you. I have indeed tired you by a long discourse ; but this is the misfortune of those to whose influence nothing will be conceded, and who must win every inch of their ground by argument. You have heard me with goodness. May you decide with wisdom ! For my part, I feel my mind greatly disburthened by what I have done to-day. I have been the less fearful of trying your patience because on this subject I mean to spare it altogether in future. I have this comfort, that in every stage

of the American affairs I have steadily opposed the measures that have produced the confusion, and may bring on the destruction of this empire. I now go so far as to risk a proposal of my own. If I cannot give peace to my country, I give it to my conscience.  
—BURKE.

## 28.

Though it is only in a very imperfect state of the world's arrangements that any one can best serve the happiness of others by the absolute sacrifice of his own, yet so long as the world is in that imperfect state I fully acknowledge that the readiness to make such a sacrifice is the highest virtue which can be found in man. I will add that in this condition of the world, paradoxical as the assertion may be, the conscious ability to do without happiness gives the best prospect of realising such happiness as is attainable. For nothing except that consciousness can raise a person above the chances of life by making him feel that, let fate and fortune do their worst, they had not power to subdue him; which, once felt, frees him from excess of anxiety concerning the evils of life, and enables him, like many a Stoic in the worst times of the Roman empire, to cultivate in tranquillity the sources of satisfaction accessible to him, without concerning himself about the uncertainty of their duration any more than about their inevitable end.—J. S. MILL.

## 29.

Society has almost always begun in inequality, and its tendency is towards equality. This is a sure progress, but the inequality of its first stage is neither unnatural nor unjust ; it is only the error of preserving instead of improving which has led to injustice—the folly of thinking that men's institutions can be perpetual when everything else in the world is continually changing. When the conquered Latins were first brought to Rome by those who were then the only Roman citizens, when they were allowed to retain their personal liberty, to enjoy landed property, and to become so far a part of the Roman people, it was not required that they should pass at once from the condition of foreigners to that of perfect citizens : the condition of commons was a fit state of transition from one rank to the other.

## 30.

It is hard to personate and act a part long ; for where truth is not at the bottom, Nature will always be endeavouring to return, and will press out and betray herself one time or other. Therefore, if any man think it convenient to seem good, let him be so indeed, and then his goodness will appear to everybody's satisfaction : so that upon all accounts sincerity is true wisdom. Particularly as to the affairs of the world, integrity has many advantages over all the fine and artificial ways of dissimulation and deceit ; it is much the plainer and easier, much the safer and more

secure way of dealing in the world ; it has less of trouble and difficulty, of entanglement and perplexity, of danger and hazard in it. It is the shortest and nearest way to one end, carrying us thither in a straight line, and will hold out and last longest. The arts of deceit and cunning do continually grow weaker and less effectual and serviceable to those that use them ; whereas integrity gains strength by woe, and the more and larger any man practiseth it the greater service it doeth him, by confirming his reputation and encouraging those with whom he hath to do to repose the greatest trust and confidence in him, which is an unspeakable advantage in the business and affairs of life.—*Spectator*.

## 31.

The last calamities of our country, my brother Quintus, have again united us ; and something like the tenderness of earlier days appears to have returned, in the silence of ambition and the subsidence of hope. It has frequently occurred to me how different we all are from the moment when the parental roof bursts asunder, as it were, and the inmates are scattered abroad and build up here and there new families. Many who before lived in unity and concord are now in the condition of those who, on receiving the intelligence of some shipwreck, collect together for plunder and quarrel on touching the first fragment.

*Quintus*. We never disagreed on the division of any property, unless indeed the state and its honours

may be considered as such ; and although in regard to Cæsar our fortune drew us different ways, latterly you will remember my anxiety to procure for you the consulship and the triumph. Our political views, Marcus, have always been similar and generally the same : you indeed were somewhat more aristocratic and senatorial ; and this prejudice ruined us both. As if the immortal gods took a pleasure in confounding us by the difficulty of our choice, they placed the best man at the head of the worst cause.

## 32.

After his departure everything tended to the wildest anarchy. Faction and discontent had often risen so high among the old settlers that they could scarcely be kept within bounds. The spirit of the new-comers was too ungovernable to bear any restraint ; several among them of better rank were such dissipated hopeless young men as their friends were glad to send out in quest of whatever future might betide them in a foreign land. Of the lower order many were so profligate or desperate that their country was happy to throw them out as nuisances in society. Such persons were little capable of the regular subordination, the strict economy and persevering industry, which their situation required. The Indians, observing their misconduct and that every precaution for sustenance or safety was neglected, not only withheld the supplies of provisions they were accustomed to furnish, but harassed them with continued hostilities. All their subsistence was derived from the stores they had

brought from England ; these were soon consumed ; then the domestic animals sent out to breed in the country were devoured, and by this inconsiderate waste they were reduced to such extremity of famine as not only to eat the most nauseous and unwholesome roots and berries, but to feed on the bodies of the Indians whom they slew, and even on those of their companions who sank under the impression of such complicated distress. In less than six months, of 500 persons whom Smith left in Virginia only 60 remained, and these so feeble and dejected that they could not have survived for ten days if succour had not arrived from a quarter whence they did not expect it.

## 33.

He illustrates this by the example of Tully's son Marcus. Cicero, in order to accomplish his son in that sort of learning which he designed him for, sent him to Athens, the most celebrated academy at that time in the world, and where a vast concourse out of the most polite nations could not but furnish the young gentleman with a multitude of great examples and incidents that might insensibly have instructed him in his designed studies. He placed him under the care of Cratippus, who was one of the greatest philosophers of the age, and as if all the books which were at that time written had not been sufficient for his use, he composed others on purpose for him. Notwithstanding all this, history informs us that Marcus proved a mere blockhead, and that Nature (who, it seems, was even with the son for her prodigality to

the father) rendered him incapable of improving by all the rules of eloquence, the precepts of philosophy, his own endeavours, and the most refined conversation in Athens. This author therefore proposes that there should be certain triers or examiners appointed by the State to inspect the genius of every particular boy, and to allot him the part that is most suitable for his natural talents. Plato, in one of his dialogues, tells us that Socrates, who was the son of a midwife, used to say that as his mother, though she was very skilful in her profession, could not deliver a woman unless she was first with child, so neither could he himself raise knowledge out of a mind where nature had not planted it.—*Spectator*.

## 34.

It is the destiny of the obscure to be despised ; it is the privilege of the illustrious to be hated. Whoever hates me, proves and feels himself to be less than I am. If in argument we can make a man angry with us, we have drawn him from his vantage-ground and overcome him. For he who, in order to attack a little man (and every one calls his adversary so), ceases to defend the truth, shows that truth is less his object than the little man. I profess the tenets of the New Academy, because it teaches us modesty in the midst of wisdom, and leads through doubt to inquiry. Hence it appears to me that it must render us quieter and more studious, without doing what Epicurus would do ; that is, without singing us to sleep in groves and meadows, while our country is calling on



us loudly to defend her. Nevertheless I have lived in the most familiar way with Epicureans, as you know, and have loved them affectionately. There is no more certain sign of a narrow mind, of stupidity, and of arrogance, than to stand aloof from those who think differently from ourselves. If they have weighed the matter in dispute as carefully, it is equitable to suppose that they have the same chance as we have of being in the right; if they have not, we may as reasonably be out of humour with our footman. He is more ignorant and more careless of it still.

## 35.

Yet think not that battles gained, dominion extended, or enemies brought to submission, are the virtues which at present claim my admiration. Were the reigning monarch only famous for his victories, I should regard his character with indifference: the boast of heroism in this enlightened age is justly regarded as a qualification of a very subordinate rank, and mankind now begin to look with becoming horror on these foes to man. The virtue in this aged monarch which I have at present in view is one of a much more exalted nature, is one of the most difficult of attainment, is the least praised of all kingly virtues, and yet deserves the greatest praise: the virtue I mean is justice—strict administration of justice, without severity and without favour.

Of all virtues this is the most difficult to be practised by a king who has a power to pardon. All men, even tyrants themselves, lean to mercy when unbiassed

by passions or interest: the heart naturally persuades to forgiveness, and pursuing the dictates of this pleasing deceiver, we are led to prefer our private satisfaction to public utility. What a thorough love for the public, what a strong command over the passions, what a finely conducted judgment, must he possess who opposes the dictates of reason to those of his heart, and prefers the future interest of his people to his own immediate satisfaction !

## 36.

My vanity, or my kindness, makes me flatter myself that you would rather hear of me than of those whom I have mentioned ; but of myself I have very little which I care to tell. Last winter I went down to my native town, where I found the streets much narrower and shorter than I thought I had left them, inhabited by a new race of people, to whom I was very little known. My playfellows were grown old, and forced me to suspect that I was no longer young. My only remaining friend has changed his principles, and was become the tool of the predominant faction. My step-daughter, from whom I expected most, and whom I met with sincere benevolence, has lost the beauty and gaiety of youth, without having gained much of the wisdom of age. I wandered about for five days, and took the first convenient opportunity of returning to a place where, if there is not much happiness, there is at least such a diversity of good and evil that slight vexations do not fix upon the heart. I think in a few weeks to try another excursion ; though

to what end? Let me know what has been the result of the return to your own country; whether time has made any alteration for the better, or whether, when the first raptures of salutation were over, you did not find your thoughts confess their disappointment.—  
S. JOHNSON.

## 37.

Cromwell appeared the next day in the House full of confusion and irresolution, which the natural temper of his understanding could hardly avoid when he least desired it, and therefore, when it was now to his purpose, he could act it to the life. And after much hesitation, and many expressions of his own unworthiness, and disability to support so great a charge, and of the entire resignation of himself to their commands, and absolute dependence upon God's providence and blessing, from whom he had received many instances of His favour, he submitted to their good will and pleasure, and desired them that no more time might be lost in the preparations which were to be made for so great a work; for he did confess that kingdom to be reduced into so great straits, that he was willing to engage his own person in this expedition for the difficulties which appeared in it; and more out of hope with the hazard of his life to give some obstruction to the successes which the rebels were at present exalted with, that so the Commonwealth might retain still some footing in that kingdom till they might be able to send fresh supplies,

than out of any expectation that, with the strength he carried, he should be able in any signal degree to prevail over them.—CLARENDON.

## 38.

What, among polished nations, is called speculative reasoning or research, is altogether unknown in the rude state of society, and never becomes the occupation or amusement of the human faculties, until man be so far improved as to have secured, with certainty, the means of subsistence, as well as the possession of leisure and tranquillity. The thoughts and attention of a savage are confined within the small circle of objects immediately conducive to his preservation or enjoyment. Everything beyond that escapes his observation, or is perfectly indifferent to him. Like a mere animal, what is before his eyes interests and affects him; what is out of sight, or at a distance, makes little impression. When, on the approach of evening, a Caribbee feels himself disposed to go to rest, no consideration will tempt him to sell his hammock. But in the morning, when he is sallying out to the business or pastime of the day, he will part with it for the slightest toy that catches his fancy. At the close of winter, while the impression of what he has suffered from the rigour of the climate is fresh in the mind of the North American, he sets himself with vigour to prepare materials for erecting a comfortable hut to protect him against the inclemency of the succeeding season; but as soon as the weather

becomes mild, he forgets what is past, abandons his work, and never thinks of it more, until the return of cold compels him, when too late, to resume it.—ROBERTSON.

## 39.

Yet another danger to the permanence of our rule in India lies in the endeavours of well-intentioned faddists to regulate the customs and institutions of Eastern races in accordance with their own ideas. The United Kingdom is a highly civilised country, and our habits and convictions have been gradually developed under the influences of our religion and our national surroundings. Fortunately for themselves, the people of Great Britain possess qualities which have made them masters of a vast and still expanding empire. But these qualities have their defects as well as their merits, and one of the defects is a certain insularity of thought, or narrow-mindedness—a slowness to recognise that institutions which are perfectly suitable and right for us may be quite unsuited, if not injurious, to other races, and that what may not be right for us to do is not necessarily wrong for people of a different belief, and with absolutely different traditions and customs.—GEN. ROBERTS.

## 40.

Odoacer was the first barbarian who reigned in Italy, over a people who had once asserted their just superiority above the rest of mankind. The disgrace

of the Romans still excites our respectful compassion, and we fondly sympathise with the imaginary grief and indignation of their degenerate posterity. But the calamities of Italy had gradually subdued the proud consciousness of freedom and glory. In the age of Roman virtue, the provinces were subject to the arms, and the citizens to the laws, of the Republic; till those laws were subverted by civil discord, and both the city and the provinces became the servile property of a tyrant. The forms of the constitution, which alleviated or disguised their abject slavery, were abolished by time and violence; the Italians alternately lamented the presence or the absence of the sovereigns whom they detested or despised; and the succession of five centuries inflicted the various evils of military licence, capricious despotism, and elaborate oppression. During the same period the barbarians emerged from obscurity and contempt, and the warriors of Germany and Scythia were introduced into the provinces as the servants, the allies, and at length the masters, of the Romans, whom they insulted or protected.

## 41.

When we compare our sympathy with enjoyment and our sympathy with suffering, the superior promptitude and sharpness of the latter cannot fail to strike us, as a manifest instance of adaptation between our nature and our lot. Our associates who are at ease and happy can afford *to wait* for our affection, or even dispense with it, if needs be; but the wretched *want our help*, and if it were withheld till pity, like friend-

ship, had taken time to grow, they would meanwhile perish with the delay. Misery is an acute disease, requiring instant attention and vigilant treatment ; and by the power given to it of exciting pity in the beholder, it is enabled to call its own physicians and fetch the needful prescription in an instant : by its continued influence in sustaining uneasy emotions, it is secured against neglect ; and, in spite of themselves, keeps its natural nurses awake, to tender still the cup of cold water in the intervals of its fever. As Butler has finely remarked, "Pain and sorrow have a right to our assistance ; compassion puts us in mind of the debt, and that we owe it to ourselves as well as to others." —MARTINEAU.

## 42.

Among all the qualities which go to constitute the highest military excellence, either as a general or as a soldier, none was wanting in the character of Alexander. Together with his own chivalrous courage,—sometimes indeed both excessive and unreasonable, so as to form the only military defect which can be fairly imputed to him,—we trace in all his operations the most careful dispositions taken beforehand, vigilant precaution against possible reverse, and abundant resource in adapting himself to new contingencies. Amidst constant success these precautionary combinations were never discontinued. His achievements are the earliest recorded evidence of scientific military organisation on a large scale, and of its overwhelming effects. Alexander overawes the imagination

more than any other personage of antiquity, by the matchless development of all that constitutes effective force—as an individual warrior, and as an organiser and leader of armed masses: not merely the blind impetuosity ascribed by Homer to Ares, but also the intelligent, methodised, and all-subduing compression which he personifies in Athene. But all his great qualities were fit for use only against enemies; in which category indeed were numbered all mankind, known and unknown, except those who chose to submit to him. In his Indian campaigns, amidst tribes of utter strangers, we perceive that not only those who stand on their defence, but also those who abandon their property and flee to the mountains, are alike pursued and slaughtered.

## 43.

He deeply deplored the want of plan and foresight shown by the leaders of the enterprise. They trusted very much to the chapter of accidents, and thought that it was enough to kill Cæsar to establish the Republic on its old foundations. They forgot that the body politic was corrupt to its heart's core, and that a century of struggles and disorder had made the people careless as to the fate of the Constitution, provided they were fed and amused. Accustomed to bribes and largesses on a gigantic scale, they regarded political power chiefly as the means of securing benefits to themselves in the shape of corn, money, and theatrical shows, and the highest bidder was the man who generally obtained their votes. To Cæsar's rule they bowed



their necks without a murmur, so long as the old names were kept under which they fancied that Roman freedom was preserved ; and Plutarch remarks, with reference to the attempt of Antony to place the kingly diadem on Cæsar's brow, that it was "a curious thing enough that they should submit with patience to the fact, and yet at the same time dread the name as the destruction of their liberty." It is impossible not to wonder that men like Brutus and Cassius should have shown themselves so incapable of guiding the enterprise on which they had staked their lives.

## 44.

Bias said well to a vicious person,—“He was sure the man should be punished ; he was not sure he should live to see it.” And though the Messenians that were betrayed and slain by Aristocrates in the battle of Cyprus were not made alive again, yet the justice of God was admired, and treason infinitely disgraced, when, twenty years after, the treason was discovered, and the traitor punished with a horrid death. Lyciscus gave up the Orchomenians to their enemies, having first wished his feet, which he then dipped in water, might rot off, if he were not true to them ; and yet his feet did not rot till those men were destroyed, and of a long time after ; and yet at last they did. If punishment were instantly and totally inflicted, it would be but a sudden and single document ; but a slow and lingering judgment, and a wrath breaking out in the next age, is like an universal proposition, teaching our posterity that God was angry

all the while, that He had a long indignation in His breast, that He would not forget to take vengeance. And it is a demonstration that even the prosperous sins of the present age will find the same period in the divine revenge, when men see a judgment upon the nephews for the sins of their grandfathers, though in other instances, and for sins acted in the days of their ancestors.

## 45.

He was ambitious, but it was to serve his king and country only; fearless, because his whole heart was bound up in these noble objects; disinterested, because the enriching of himself or family never for a moment crossed his mind; insensible to private fame when it interfered with public duty; indifferent to popular obloquy when it arose from rectitude of conduct. Like the Roman patriot, he wished rather to be than to appear deserving. Greatness was forced upon him, both in military and political life, rather because he was felt to be the worthiest, than because he desired to be the first: he was the architect of his own fortune, but he became so almost unconsciously, while solely engrossed in constructing that of his country.

## 46.

I take it to be the highest instance of a noble mind to bear great qualities without discovering in a man's behaviour any consciousness that he is superior to the rest of the world. Or, to say it otherwise, it is the

duty of a great person so to demean himself, as that whatever endowments he may have, he may appear to value himself upon no qualities but such as any man may arrive at : he ought to think no man valuable but for his public spirit, justice, and integrity ; and all other endowments to be esteemed only as they contribute to the exerting those virtues. Such a man, if he is wise or valiant, knows it is of no consideration to other men that he is so, but as he employs those high talents for their use and service.

## 47.

Every age has its besetting sins ; every condition its attendant evils ; every state of society its diseases, that it is especially liable to be attacked by. One of the pests which dog civilisation, the more so the further it advances, is the fear of ridicule, and seldom has the contagion been so noxious as in England at this day. Is there anybody living, among the upper classes at least, who has not often been laughed out of what he ought to have done, and laughed into what he ought not to have done ? Who has not sinned ? Who has not been a runagate from duty ? Who has not stifled his best feelings ? Who has not mortified his noblest desires ? solely to escape being laughed at ? and not once merely but time after time, until that which has so often been checked becomes stunted, and no longer dares lift up its head. And then, after having been laughed down ourselves, we too join the pack who go about laughing down others.—A. W. HARE.

48.

Trust me, this unwary pleasantry of thine will sooner or later bring thee into scrapes and difficulties, which no afterwit can extricate thee out of. In these sallies, too oft, I see it happens, that a person laughed at considers himself in the light of a person injured, with all the rights of such a situation belonging to him; and when thou viewest him in that light too, and reckonest up his friends, his family, his kindred and allies—and musterest up with them the many recruits which will list under him from a sense of common danger—'tis no extravagant arithmetic to say, that for every ten jokes thou hast gotten an hundred enemies: and, till thou hast gone on, and raised a swarm of wasps about thine ears, and art half stung to death by them, thou wilt never be persuaded that it is so. Revenge from some baneful corner shall level a tale of dishonour at thee, which no innocence of heart or integrity of conduct shall set right. The fortunes of thy house shall totter,—thy character which led the way to them shall bleed on every side,—thy faith questioned, thy works belied,—thy wit forgotten,—thy learning trampled on. To wind up the last scene of thy tragedy Cruelty and Cowardice, twin ruffians, hired and set on by Malice in the dark, shall strike together at all thy infirmities and mistakes.

49.

Some have been apt to wonder why Cæsar, after forcing Pompey out of Italy, instead of crossing the

sea after him, when he was in no condition to resist, should leave him for the space of a year to gather armies and fleets at his leisure, and strengthen himself with all the forces of the East. But Cæsar had good reasons for what he did: he knew that all the troops which could be drawn from those countries were no match for his; that if he had pursued him directly to Greece, and driven him out of it, as he had done out of Italy, he should probably have driven him into Spain, where of all places he desired the least to meet him, and where in all events Pompey had a sure resource as long as it was possessed by a firm and veteran army,—which it was Cæsar's business therefore to destroy in the first place, or he could expect no success from the war; and there was no opportunity of destroying it so favourable as when Pompey himself was at such a distance from it. This was the reason of his marching back with so much expedition, to find, as he said, an army without a general, and to return to a general without an army. The event showed that he judged right: for within forty days from the first sight of his enemy in Spain, he made himself master of the whole province.

50.

A certain cavalier in the place, named Carbajal, who had long held an office under the Government, fell under the Viceroy's displeasure, on suspicion of conniving at the secession of some of his kinsmen, who had lately taken part with the malcontents. The

Viceroy summoned Carbajal to attend him at his palace late at night, and, when conducted to his presence, he bluntly charged him with treason. The latter stoutly denied the accusation, in tones as haughty as those of his accuser. The altercation grew warm, until, in the heat of passion, the Viceroy struck him with his poniard. In an instant the attendants, taking this as a signal, plunged their swords into the body of the unfortunate man, who fell lifeless on the floor. Greatly alarmed for the consequences of his rash act—for Carbajal was much beloved in Lima—the Viceroy ordered the corpse of the murdered man to be removed by a private stairway from the house, and carried to the Cathedral, where, rolled in his bloody cloak, it was laid in a hastily dug grave. So tragic a proceeding, known to so many witnesses, could not long be kept secret. Vague rumours of the fact explained the mysterious disappearance of Carbajal. The grave was opened, and the mangled remains of the slaughtered cavalier established the guilt of the Viceroy.—PRESCOTT.

## 51.

Having received an information that one of his nobles had conceived a design against his life, he enjoined the strictest silence to the informer, and took no notice of it himself, till the person accused of this execrable treason came to his court, in order to execute his intention. The next morning he went to hunt with all the train of his courtiers, and, when they were got into the deepest woods of the forest,

drew that nobleman away from the rest of the company, and spoke to him thus: "Behold! we are here alone, armed and mounted alike. Nobody sees or hears us, or can give either of us aid against the other. If, then, you are a brave man, if you have courage and spirit, perform your purpose; accomplish the promise you have made to mine enemies. If you think I ought to be killed by you, when can you do it better? when more opportunely? when more manfully? Have you prepared poison for me? That is a womanish treason. Or would you murder me in my bed? An adulteress could do that. Or have you hid a dagger to stab me secretly? That is the deed of a ruffian. Rather act like a soldier—act like a man; and fight with me hand to hand, that your treason may at least be free from baseness." At these words the traitor, as if he had been struck with a thunderbolt, fell at his feet and implored his pardon. "Fear nothing: you shall not suffer anything from me," replied the king; and kept his word.

## 52.

There were other days when England was the hope of freedom. Wherever in the world a high aspiration was entertained, or a noble blow was struck, it was to England that the eyes of the oppressed were always turned—to this favourite, this darling home of so much privilege and so much happiness, where the people that had built up a noble edifice for themselves would, it was well known, be ready to do what in them lay to secure the benefit of the same in-

estimable boon for others. . . . There is now before the world a glorious prize. A portion of those as yet unhappy people are still making an effort to retrieve what they have lost so long, but have not ceased to love and to desire. I speak of those in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Another portion—a band of heroes such as the world has rarely seen—stand on the rocks of Montenegro, and are ready now, as they have ever been during the four hundred years of their exile from their fertile plains, to sweep down from their fastnesses, and meet the Turk at any odds for the re-establishment of justice and of peace in those countries. Another portion still, the 5,000,000 of Bulgarians, cowed and beaten down to the ground, hardly venturing to look upwards even to their Father in heaven, have extended their hands to you: they have sent you their petition, they have prayed for your help and protection.

## 53.

But if Hannibal's genius may be likened to the Homeric god, who, in his hatred to the Trojans, rises from the deep to rally the fainting Greeks, and to lead them against the enemy, so the calm courage with which Hector met his more than human adversary in his country's cause is no unworthy image of the unyielding magnanimity displayed by the aristocracy of Rome. As Hannibal utterly eclipses Carthage, so, on the contrary, Fabius, Marcellus, Claudius Nero, even Scipio himself, are as nothing when compared to the spirit, and wisdom, and power of Rome. The



Senate, which voted its thanks to its political enemy, Varro, after his disastrous defeat, "because he had not despaired of the commonwealth," and which disdained either to solicit, or to reprove, or to threaten, or in any way to notice the twelve colonies which had refused their customary supplies of men for the army, is far more to be honoured than the conqueror of Zama. This we should the more carefully bear in mind, because our tendency is to admire individual greatness far more than national; and as no single Roman will bear comparison to Hannibal, we are apt to murmur at the event of the contest, and to think that the victory was awarded to the least worthy of the combatants.

## 54.

Such a difference of behaviour in their two greatest leaders soon occasioned two different parties in Rome. The old people in general joined in crying up Fabius. Fabius was not rapacious, as some others were, but temperate in his conquests. In what he had done, he had acted, not only with that moderation which becomes a Roman general, but with much prudence and foresight. "These fineries," they cried, "are a pretty diversion for an idle effeminate people: let us leave them to the Greeks. The Romans desire no other ornaments of life than a simplicity of manners at home, and fortitude against our enemies abroad. It is by these arts that we have raised our name so high, and spread our dominion so far: and shall we suffer them now to be exchanged for a fine taste,

and what they call elegance of living? No, great Jupiter, who presidest over the capitol! let the Greeks keep their arts to themselves, and let the Romans learn only how to conquer and to govern mankind."

## 55.

Another set, and particularly the younger people, who were extremely delighted with the noble works of the Grecian artists that had been set up for some time in the temples, and porticos, and all the most public places of the city, and who used frequently to spend the greatest part of the day in contemplating the beauties of them, extolled Marcellus as much for the pleasure he had given them. "We shall now," said they, "no longer be reckoned among the barbarians. That rust, which we have been so long contracting, will soon be worn off. Other generals have conquered our enemies, but Marcellus has conquered our ignorance. We begin to see with new eyes, and have a new world of beauties opening before us. Let the Romans be polite, as well as victorious; and let us learn to excel the nations in taste, as well as to conquer them with our arms."

## 56.

On the other side, the King's men were not wanting in securing their forts, and repairing them with earth, hay, and whatsoever else they could come by of most commodious; and hoping that the waters would swell no higher, they persuaded themselves that they should,

within a few days, finish their business. They very well knew the townsmen's necessities; and that all their victuals being already spent, the affairs within were drawing to great extremity. While both sides were in these hopes and fears, the time came wherein nature, by way of her hidden causes, was likewise to work her effects. About the end of September the sea began to swell exceedingly, according as she useth to do in that season of the year; and pouring in at the high tides, no longer waves, but even mountains of waters, into the most inward channels and rivers, made so great an inundation, as all the country about Leyden seemed to be turned into a sea. It cannot be said how much the rebels were hereby encouraged, and the king's men discouraged. The former came presently forth with their fleet, which consisted of about one hundred and fifty bottoms, a great part whereof were made like gallies; and to these were added many other boats which served only to carry victuals.

## 57.

These arguments, which had much logic in them, were strongly urged by Zapena, a veteran marshal of the camp who had seen much service, and whose counsels were usually received with deference. But on this occasion commanders and soldiers were hot for following up their victory. They cared nothing for the numbers of the enemy, they cried,—“The more infidels the greater glory in destroying them.” Delay might after all cause the loss of the prize. The

archduke ought to pray that the sun might stand still for him that morning, as for Joshua in the vale of Ajalon. The foe seeing himself entrapped, with destruction awaiting him, was now skulking towards his ships, which still offered him the means of escape. Should they give him time he would profit by their negligence, and next morning when they reached Nieuport, the birds would be flown. Especially the leaders of the mutineers were hoarse with indignation at the proposed delay. They had not left their brethren, they shouted, nor rallied to the archduke's banner in order to sit down and dig in the sand like ploughmen. There was triumph for the Holy Church, there was the utter overthrow of the heretic army, there was rich booty to be gathered, all these things were within their reach if they now advanced and smote the rebels while, confused and panic-stricken, they were endeavouring to embark in their ships.

58.

I have given another instance that, like other barristers, I am not encumbered with too much modesty, since I have entreated Messrs Treuttel and Würtz to find some means of conveying to you a hasty, and of course rather a tedious, attempt to give an account of that remarkable person Napoleon, who had for so many years such a terrible influence in the world. I do not know but what I owe him some obligations, since he put me in arms for twelve years, during which I served in one of our corps of Yeo-

manly, and notwithstanding an early lameness, became a good horseman, a hunter, and a shooter. Of late these faculties have failed me a little, as the rheumatism, that sad torment of our northern climate, has had its influence on my bones. But I cannot complain, since I see my sons pursuing the sport I have given up.

## 59.

But the Romans, it may be added, had they been more conscious of the cruelties thus perpetrated in the midst of them,—had they felt more keenly the pain and shame of the victims of the tyranny which overshadowed them,—would still have borne it with an apathy which it requires some effort to understand. For they were hardened against the sense of wrong and suffering by the viciousness of their own institutions, by their own personal habits and usages, by the daily practice of every household among them. Whenever the Roman entered his own dwelling, the slave chained in the doorway, the thongs hanging from the stairs, the marks of the iron and the cord on the faces of his domestics, all impressed him with the feeling that he was a despot himself; for despot and master were only other words for the same fearful thing, the irresponsible owner of a horde of human chattels.

## 60.

The navy and army were therefore far more than sufficient to repel a Dutch invasion. But could the

navy, could the army, be trusted? Would not the trainbands flock by thousands to the standard of the deliverer? The party which had, a few years before, drawn the sword for Monmouth would undoubtedly be eager to welcome the Prince of Orange. And what had become of the party which had, during seven and forty years, been the bulwark of monarchy? Where were now those gallant gentlemen who had ever been ready to shed their blood for the crown? Outraged and insulted, driven from the bench of justice and deprived of all military command, they saw the peril of their ungrateful Sovereign with undisguised delight. Where were those priests and prelates who had, from ten thousand pulpits, proclaimed the duty of obeying the anointed delegate of God? Some of them had been imprisoned: some had been plundered: all had been placed under the iron rule of the High Commission, and had been in hourly fear lest some new freak of tyranny should deprive them of their freeholds and leave them without a morsel of bread.

## 61.

My dear and lovely Pupil,—When I am my own master, delivered from the necessity of attending to engagements, ever soliciting me upon the spot where I am, and exhausting me to very lassitude before the evening, when my friendly correspondence should commence, then, and not till then, shall I be able, I fear, to discharge my heart of the obligations which it feels to those at a distance. Do excuse me, I pray you, by the memory of our old acquaintance, and any-

thing else which it is pleasant to remember, for my neglect to you in London ; and not to you alone, I am sorry to say, but to every one whom I was not officially bound to write to, even my worthy father.

## 62.

In each of the close-massed columns which were formed by our four complete divisions there were more than five thousand foot-soldiers. The colours were flying ; the bands at first were playing ; and once more the time had come round when in all this armed pride there was nothing of false majesty : for already videttes could be seen on the hillocks, and (except at the spots where our horsemen were marching) there was nothing but air and sunshine, and at intervals the dark form of a single rifleman, to divide our columns from the enemy. But more warlike than trumpet and drum was the grave quiet which followed the ceasing of the bands. The pain of weariness had begun. Few spoke—all toiled. Waves break upon the shore ; and though they are many, still distance will gather their numberless cadences into one. So, also, it was with one ceaseless hissing sound that a wilderness of tall crisping herbage bent under the tramp of the coming thousands. As each mighty column marched on, one hardly remembered at first the weary frames, the aching limbs which composed it : but a little while, and then the sickness which had clung to the army began to make it seen that the columns in all their pride were things built with the bodies of suffering mortals.

## 63.

Of the Latin historians, Tacitus was certainly the greatest. His style, indeed, is not only faulty in itself, but is in some respects peculiarly unfit for historical composition. He carries his love of effect far beyond the limits of moderation. He tells a fine story finely ; but he cannot tell a plain story plainly. He stimulates till stimulants lose their power. Thucydides, as we have already observed, relates ordinary transactions with the unpretending clearness and succinctness of a gazette. His great powers of painting he reserves for events of which the slightest details are interesting. The simplicity of the setting gives additional lustre to the brilliants. There are passages in the narrative of Tacitus superior to the best which can be quoted from Thucydides. But they are not enchased and relieved with the same skill. They are far more striking when extracted from the body of the work to which they belong than when they occur in their place, and are read in connexion with what precedes and follows.

## 64.

Diodotus, the orator who came forward to answer Cleon, did not dare to appeal to the justice of the assembly, but rather strove to demonstrate that expediency required Athens to refrain from wholesale massacre. "Let the leaders be put on trial," he said, "but the rest left alone. If you condemn the common people of Mitylene, who took no part in the revolt, and as soon as they got possession of arms attacked



the rebels, you are not merely slaying your benefactors, but committing a political blunder. If you execute all without distinction, the populace in every city will feel that their cause is the same as that of the nobles, and revolts for the future will be desperate and unanimous."

## 65.

First of all, a man should always consider how much more he has than he wants. I am wonderfully pleased with the reply which Aristippus made to one who condoled with him on the loss of a farm. "Why," said he, "I have three farms still, and you have but one; so that I ought rather to be afflicted for you than you for me." On the contrary, foolish men are more apt to consider what they have lost than what they possess; and to fix their eyes upon those who are richer than themselves, rather than on those who are under greater difficulties. All the real pleasures and conveniences of life lie in a narrower compass, but it is the humour of mankind to be always looking forward, and straining after one who has got the start of them in wealth and honour. For this reason, as there are none can be properly called rich who have not more than they want, there are few rich men in any of the polite nations but among the middle sort of people, who keep their wishes within their fortunes, and have more wealth than they know how to enjoy. Persons of a higher rank live in a kind of splendid poverty, and are perpetually wanting, be-

cause instead of acquiescing in the solid pleasures of life they endeavour to outvie one another in shadows and appearances.

## 66.

Wandering along at my own will like the rivers, feeling wherever I went the presence of Cybele, whether in the bed of the valleys or on the height of the mountains, I bounded whither I would, like a blind and chainless life. But when night, filled with the charm of the gods, overtook me on the slopes of the mountain, she guided me to the mouth of the caverns, and then tranquillised me as she tranquillises the billows of the sea. Stretched across the threshold of my retreat, my flanks hidden within the cave, and my head under the open sky, I watched the spectacle of the dark. The sea-gods, it is said, quit during the hours of darkness their palaces under the deep; they seat themselves on the promontories, and their eyes wander over the expanse of the waves. Even so I kept watch, having at my feet an expanse of hushed sea.—DE GUÉRIN, *trans.* Arnold.

## 67.

Mankind in general are not sufficiently acquainted with the import of the word justice. It is commonly believed to consist only in a performance of those duties to which the laws of society can oblige us. This, I allow, is sometimes the import of the word,

and in this sense justice is distinguished from equity ; but there is a justice still more extensive which can be shown to embrace all the virtues united. Justice may be defined as that virtue which compels us to give to every man that which is his due. In this extended sense of the word it comprehends the practice of every virtue which reason prescribes or society should expect. Our duties to our Maker, to each other, and to ourselves are fully answered if we give them what we owe them. This justice, properly speaking, is the only virtue, and all the rest have their origin in it. The qualities of candour, fortitude, charity, and generosity, for example, are not in their own nature virtues, and if ever they deserve the title, it is owing only to justice, which impels and directs them. Without such a moderator candour might become indiscretion, fortitude obstinacy, charity imprudence, and generosity mistaken profusion.—GOLDSMITH.

## 68.

With a home filled with those whom we entirely love and sympathise with, and with some old friends, to whom one can open one's heart fully from time to time, the world's society has rather a bracing influence to make one shake off mere dreams of delight. You must not think me bilious or low-spirited—I never felt better or more inclined to work ; but one gets pathetic with thinking of the present and the past, and of the days and the people that you and I have seen together, and of the progress which we have all made towards eternity ; for I, who am nearly the youngest

of our old set, have completed half my threescore years and ten. Besides, the aspect of the times is really to my mind awful—on one side a party profaning the holiest names by the lowest principles and the grossest selfishness and ignorance, and on the other a party who seem likely *κακὸν κακῷ ἰᾶσθαι*, who disclaim and renounce even the very name of that, whose spirit their adversaries have long renounced equally.—ARNOLD.

## 69.

It is quite high time that I should write to you, for weeks and months go by, and it is quite startling to think how little communication I hold with many of those whom I love most dearly. And yet these are times when I am least of all disposed to loosen the links which bind me to my oldest and dearest friends, for I imagine we shall all want the union of all the good men we can get together; and the want of sympathy which I cannot but feel towards so many of those whom I meet with, makes me think how delightful it would be to have daily intercourse with those with whom I ever feel it thoroughly. What men do in middle life, without a wife and children to turn to, I cannot imagine; for I think the affections must be sadly checked and chilled, even in the best men, by their intercourse with people, such as one usually finds them in the world. I do not mean that one does not meet good and sensible people, but then their minds are set, and our minds are set, and they will not, in mature age, grow into each other.—ARNOLD.

## 70.

But it was a dreadful deed, and all the more dreadful that it appeared to a whole people great and commendable. Never perhaps has a commonwealth more lamentably declared itself bankrupt than did Rome through this resolution—adopted in cold blood by the majority of the government and approved by public opinion—to put to death in all haste a few political prisoners, who were no doubt culpable according to the laws, but had not forfeited life; because, forsooth, the security of the prisons was not to be trusted, and there was no sufficient police. It was the humorous trait seldom wanting to a historical tragedy, that this act of the most brutal tyranny had to be carried out by the most unstable and timid of all Roman statesmen, and that the “first democratic consul” was selected to destroy the palladium of the ancient freedom of the Roman commonwealth, the right of *provocatio*.

## 71.

The judgment pronounced on Marius by posterity is not, like that on many other eminent men, wavering and contradictory. No one has ever ventured to deny that, by his eminent military ability, he rendered essential service to his country. No one has doubted his austere virtues, his simplicity and honesty, qualities by which, no less than by his genius for war, he gained for himself the veneration of the people. On the other hand, it is universally admitted that, as a poli-

tician, he was incompetent, and that he was only a tool in the hands of those with whom he acted. Yet it is not his incompetency to act as a statesman that makes the last part of his career appear in gloom, and fouls his brightest laurels. Had he, in the consciousness of his deficiency, withdrawn into private life, or had he been satisfied to serve his country in a humbler sphere, he would have been revered by all succeeding generations as another Romulus or Camillus.—IHNE.

## 72.

He felt that it would be madness in him to imitate the example of Monmouth, to cross the sea with a few British adventurers, and to trust to a general rising of the population. It was necessary, and it was pronounced necessary by all those who invited him over, that he should carry an army with him. Yet who could answer for the effect which the appearance of such an army might produce? The government was indeed justly odious. But would the English people, altogether unaccustomed to the interference of Continental Powers in English disputes, be inclined to look with favour on a deliverer who was surrounded by foreign soldiers? If any part of the royal forces resolutely withstood the invaders, would not that part soon have on its side the patriotic sympathy of millions? A defeat would be fatal to the whole undertaking. A bloody victory gained in the heart of the island by the mercenaries of the States General over the Coldstream Guards or the Buffs would be

the most cruel wound ever inflicted on the national pride of one of the proudest of nations. The crown so won would never be worn in peace or security.

## 73.

The analogy thus existing between France and England is indeed very striking, and, so far as we have yet considered it, seems complete in all its parts. To sum up the similarities in a few words, it may be said that both countries followed the same order of development in their scepticism, in their knowledge, in their literature, and in their toleration. In both countries there broke out a civil war at the same time, for the same object, and in many respects under the same circumstances. In both the insurgents, at first triumphant, were afterwards defeated, and the rebellion being put down, the governments of the two nations were fully restored almost at the same moment. But there the similarity stopped. At this point there began a marked divergence between the two countries, which continued to increase for more than a century, until it ended in England by the consolidation of the national prosperity; in France by a revolution more sanguinary, more complete, and more destructive than any the world has ever seen. This difference is so remarkable that a knowledge of its causes becomes essential to a right understanding of European history, and will be found to throw considerable light on other events not immediately connected with it. Besides this, such an inquiry, independently of its scientific interest, will have a high practical value.—BUCKLE.

74.

But a companion that feasts the company with wit and mirth, and leaves out the sin which is usually mixed with them, he is the man, and indeed such a companion should have his charges borne, and to such company I hope to bring you this night: for at Trout-hall, not far from this place, where I purpose to lodge this night, there is usually an angler that proves good company: and let me tell you, good company and good discourse are the very sinews of virtue: but for such discourse as we heard last night, it infects others, the very boys will learn to talk and swear as they heard mine host and another of the company that shall be nameless.—WALTON.

75.

And now, gentlemen, on this serious day, when I come, as it were, to make up my account with you, let me take to myself some degree of honest pride on the nature of the charges that are against me. I do not here stand before you accused of venality, or of neglect of duty. It is not said that, in the long period of my service, I have in a single instance sacrificed the slightest of your interests to my ambition, or to my fortune. It is not alleged that, to gratify any anger or revenge of my own or of my party, I have had a share in wronging or oppressing any description of men, or any one man in any description. No! the charges against me are all of one kind—that I have pushed the principles of general justice and benevolence too far: farther than a cautious policy would



warrant ; and farther than the opinions of many would go along with me. This is the only criticism which the most searching scrutiny of my conduct has been able to suggest. In every accident which may happen through life—in pain, in sorrow, in depression, and distress—I will call to mind this accusation, and be comforted.—BURKE.

## 76.

Thus pressed by enemies without and by factions within, the leader was found, as usual, true to himself. Circumstances so appalling as would have paralysed a common mind only stimulated his to higher action and drew forth all its resources. He combined what is most rare, singular coolness and constancy of purpose with a spirit of enterprise that might well be called romantic. His presence of mind did not now desert him. He calmly surveyed his condition, and weighed the difficulties which surrounded him, before coming to a decision. Independently of the hazard of a retreat in the face of a watchful and desperate foe, it was a deep mortification to surrender up the city, where he had so long lorded it as a master ; to abandon the rich treasures which he had secured to himself and his followers ; to forego the very means by which he had hoped to propitiate the favour of his sovereign, and secure an amnesty for his irregular proceedings. This he well knew must after all be dependent on success. To fly now was to acknowledge himself further removed from the conquest than ever. What a close was this to a career so auspiciously begun !

What a contrast to his magnificent vaunts! What a triumph would it afford to his enemies! The governor of Cuba would be amply revenged.—PRESCOTT.

## 77.

The governor of the town, though a brave officer, was neither in rank nor authority equal to the command in a place of so much consequence, besieged by such a formidable army. A few days must have put the Duke of Savoy in possession of the town, if the Admiral de Coligny, who thought it concerned his honour to attempt saving a place of such importance to his country, and which lay within his jurisdiction as governor of Picardy, had not taken the gallant resolution of throwing himself into it, with such a body of men as he could collect on a sudden. This resolution he executed with great intrepidity, and, if the nature of the enterprise be considered, with no contemptible success; for though one half of his small body of troops was cut off, he with the other broke through the enemy and entered the town. The unexpected arrival of an officer of such high rank and reputation, and who had exposed himself to such danger in order to join them, inspired the desponding garrison with courage. Everything that the admiral's great skill and experience in the art of war could suggest, for annoying the enemy or defending the town, was attempted, and the citizens, as well as the garrison, seconding his zeal with equal ardour, seemed to be determined that they would hold out to the last, and sacrifice themselves in order to save their country.—ROBERTSON.

78.

The conscripts, as the long and brilliant *cortège* of the Emperor passed through their ranks, gazed with delight on the hero who had filled the world with his renown; and the cheers with which he was saluted were almost as loud and general as in the most brilliant period of his career. But these cheering signs died away when Napoleon had passed, and the first day's march was sufficient to convince every observer that the ancient order and discipline of the army were at an end. During the whole march, the imperial *cortège* was obliged to force its way, with almost brutal violence, through the dense crowd of infantry, horsemen, and waggons which encumbered the highway; pillage had already commenced on all sides; and the disorders of the troops not only inflicted on the unhappy inhabitants all the miseries of war, but evinced, even under the eyes of the Emperor, the relaxed discipline and imperfect organisation of his army. Under the very windows of the hotel which he inhabited a vast crowd of disorderly soldiers was collected, who, with loud shouts and dissonant cries, continued during the whole night to feed a huge fire, by throwing into it the furniture, beds, and property of the wretched inhabitants.—ALISON.

79.

A council of war was now called. It was evident that the forces of the Spaniards were unequal to a contest with so numerous and well-appointed a body

of natives ; and even if they should prevail here, they would have no hope of stemming the torrent which must arise against them in their progress,—for the country was becoming more and more thickly settled, and towns and hamlets started into view at every new headland which they doubled. It was better, in the opinion of some,—the faint-hearted,—to abandon the enterprise at once, as beyond their strength. But Almagro took a different view of the affair. “To go home,” he said, “with nothing done, would be ruin, as well as disgrace. There was scarcely one but had left creditors at Panamá, who looked for payment to the fruits of this expedition. To go home would be to deliver themselves at once into their hands. It would be to go to prison. Better to roam a freeman, though in the wilderness, than to lie bound with fetters in the dungeons of Panamá. The only course for them,” he concluded, “was the one lately pursued. Pizarro might find some more commodious place where he could remain with part of the force while he himself went back for recruits to Panamá. The story they had now to tell of the riches of the land, as they had seen them with their own eyes, would put the expedition in a very different light, and could not fail to draw to their banner as many volunteers as they needed.”—  
PRESCOTT.

## 80.

The evils which the mutual animosity of these factions tended to produce were to a great extent averted by the ascendancy and by the wisdom of the Prince.

He preserved silence while silence was possible. When he was forced to speak, the earnest and peremptory tone in which he uttered his well-weighed opinions soon silenced everybody else. Whatever some of his too zealous adherents might say, he uttered not a word indicating any design on the English crown. He was doubtless well aware that between him and that crown were still interposed obstacles which no prudence might be able to surmount, and which a single false step would make insurmountable. His only chance of obtaining the splendid prize was not to seize it rudely, but to wait till, without any appearance of exertion or stratagem on his part, his secret wish should be accomplished by the force of circumstances, by the blunders of his opponents, and by the free choice of the estates of the realm. Those who ventured to interrogate him learned nothing, and yet could not accuse him of shuffling. He quietly referred them to his declaration, and assured them that his views had undergone no change since that instrument had been drawn up. So skilfully did he manage his followers that their discord seems rather to have strengthened than to have weakened his hands; but it broke forth with violence when his control was withdrawn.—MACAULAY.

## 81.

But whatever hopes he had drawn from the divisions of the Allied Powers were at once dispelled by their resolute action on the news of his descent upon France. Their strife was hushed and their old union restored

by the consciousness of a common danger. A Declaration adopted instantly by all put Napoleon to the ban of Europe. "In breaking the convention which had established him in the island of Elba, Buonaparte has destroyed the sole legal title to which his political existence is attached. By reappearing in France with projects of trouble and overthrow he has not less deprived himself of the protection of the laws, and made it evident in the face of the universe that there can no longer be either peace or truce with him. The Powers, therefore, declare that Buonaparte has placed himself out of the pale of civil and social relations, and that as the general enemy and disturber of the world he is abandoned to public justice." An engagement to supply a million of men for the purposes of the war, and a recall of their armies to the Rhine, gave practical effect to the words of the Allies.—J. R. GREEN.

## 82.

It is hardly too much to say that the thought of antagonism to the empire and the wish to extinguish it never crossed the mind of the barbarians. The conception of that empire was too universal, too august, too enduring. It was everywhere around them, and they could remember no time when it had not been so. There were especially two ideas on which the empire rested, and from which it obtained a peculiar strength and a peculiar direction. The one was the belief that as the dominion of Rome was universal, so must it be eternal. Nothing like it had been seen before. The empire of Alexander had

lasted a short lifetime ; and within its wide compass were included many arid wastes, and many tracts where none but the roving savage had ever set foot. That of the Italian city had for fourteen generations embraced all the most wealthy and populous regions of the civilised world, and had laid the foundations of its power so deep that they seemed destined to last for ever. If Rome moved slowly for a time, her foot was always planted firmly ; the ease and swiftness of her later conquests proved the solidity of the earlier, and to her, more justly than to his own city, might the boast of the Athenian historian be applied—that she advanced farthest in prosperity, and in adversity drew back the least.—BRUCE.

## 83.

Thereupon I opened the case, and told them the story at large of my living in the island, and how I managed both myself and the people there that were under me, just as I have since minuted it down. They were exceedingly taken with the story, and especially the prince, who told me with a sigh that the true greatness of life was to be master of ourselves ; that he would not have exchanged such a state of life as mine, to have been Czar of Muscovy ; and that he found more felicity in the retirement he seemed to be banished to there, than ever he found in the highest authority he enjoyed in the court of his master the Czar : that the height of human wisdom was to bring our tempers down to our circumstances, and to make a calm within under the weight of the greatest storm

without. When he came first hither, he said, he used to tear the hair from his head, and the clothes from his back, as others had done before him ; but a little time and consideration had made him look into himself, as well as round himself, to things without : that he found the mind of man, if it was but once brought to reflect upon the state of universal life, and how little this world was concerned in its true felicity, was perfectly capable of making a felicity for itself, fully satisfying to itself and suitable to its own best ends and desires with but very little assistance from the world.—DEFOE.

## 84.

The momentous question of peace or war was referred by Theodosius to the deliberation of his council ; and the arguments which might be alleged on the side of honour and justice had acquired since the death of Gratian a considerable degree of additional weight. The persecution of the imperial family to which Theodosius himself had been indebted for his fortune was now aggravated by recent and repeated injuries. Neither oaths nor treaties would restrain the boundless ambition of Maximus ; and the delay of vigorous and decisive measures, instead of prolonging the blessings of peace, would expose the eastern empire to the danger of a hostile invasion. The barbarians who had passed the Danube had lately assumed the character of soldiers and subjects, but their native fierceness was yet untamed ; and the operations of a war which would exercise their valour and diminish their numbers might tend to relieve the provinces from an in-



tolerable oppression. Notwithstanding these specious and solid reasons, which were approved by a majority of the council, Theodosius still hesitated whether he should draw the sword in a contest which could no longer admit any terms of reconciliation; and his magnanimous character was not disgraced by the apprehensions which he felt for the safety of his infant sons, and the welfare of his exhausted people. In this moment of anxious doubt, while the fate of the Roman world depended on the resolution of a single man, the charms of the princess Galla most powerfully pleaded the cause of her brother Valentinian. The heart of Theodosius was softened by the tears of beauty; his affections were insensibly engaged by the graces of youth and innocence; the art of Justina managed and directed the impulse of passion; and the celebration of the royal nuptials was the assurance and the signal of the civil war.—GIBBON.

## 85.

On reviewing these extraordinary events, we are led to distrust the capacity and courage of a prince who could so readily abandon his kingdom, without so much as firing a shot in its defence. John had shown, however, on more than one occasion, that he was destitute of neither. He was not, it must be confessed, of the temper best suited to the fierce and stirring times on which he was cast. He was of an amiable disposition, social and fond of pleasure, and so little jealous of his royal dignity that he mixed freely in the dances and other entertainments of the

humblest of his subjects. His greatest defect was the facility with which he reposed the cares of state on favourites, not always the most deserving. His greatest merit was the love of letters. Unfortunately neither his merits nor defects were of a kind best adapted to extricate him from his present perilous situation, or enable him to cope with his wily and resolute adversary. For this, however, more commanding talents might well have failed. The period had arrived when, in the regular progress of events, Navarre must yield up her independence to the two great nations on her borders ; who, attracted by the strength of her natural position and her political weakness, would be sure, now that their own domestic disorders were healed, to claim each the moiety which seemed naturally to fall within its own territorial limits. Particular events might accelerate or retard this result ; but it was not in the power of human genius to avert its final consummation.—PRESCOTT.

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